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# THE IMMIGRATION PROBLEM



# The Immigration Problem

A STUDY OF AMERICAN IMMIGRA-  
TION CONDITIONS AND NEEDS

BY  
*Whipple*  
JEREMIAH W. JENKS, PH.D., LL.D.

*Research Professor of Government and Public Administration,  
New York University*

AND

W. JETT LAUCK

*Former Associate Professor of Economics and Politics, Washington  
and Lee University; Secretary of Former National War  
Labor Board*

**FIFTH EDITION, REVISED AND ENLARGED**

BY

RUFUS D. SMITH, M.A.

*Associate Professor of Public Economy, New York University*



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## *PREFACE TO THE FIFTH EDITION*

The Immigration Problem is one of vital interest to the American people. President Roosevelt said that he considered it, with the possible exception of that of the conservation of the natural resources of the country, our most important problem. Upon our policy in dealing with the immigrants depend, to a very noteworthy extent, the progress and nature of the development of the nation economically, politically and socially.

Before the investigation of the United States Immigration Commission, completed in 1910, discussions on the subject of immigration were necessarily based largely upon conjecture or personal observation, sometimes upon prejudice. That investigation, thoroughly and scientifically planned and carried out, furnished a real basis for judgment on most of the questions connected with immigration. Both of the authors of this book were associated with the Commission throughout the investigation, and since that time have kept closely in touch with the new legislation and new publications on the subject.

Professor Smith has been a special student and lecturer on immigration for a number of years, and has done much original research and social work directly with the immigrants.

The writers are not advocates of any specific doctrine, but interpreters of facts. The facts as brought out by the researches of the Immigration Commission and by many later studies seem to point clearly to a rather rigid restriction of immigration for the present, until more progress can be made in solving the problems of assimilation and distribution. If any person is inclined to differ from the judgments expressed in this volume, it is suggested that he examine carefully the data in an unprejudiced spirit before he condemns the conclusions. The attempt has been made to furnish in either the text or the appendices enough material to enable the reader to form an independent opinion. Further data for independent judgment can, of course, be found in the reports of the United States Immigration Commission and in the reports, both annual and special, of the Bureau of Immigration of the Department of Labor. Besides these chief sources, there has been given in the appendix a selected bibliography on immigration which represents different points of view.

This edition has been thoroughly revised. It includes all of the material that is still of service which was contained in preceding editions, and some new chapters have been added; especially to be noted are those on immigration legislation in foreign countries, race problems in the Pacific, and the new restriction law.

The results of the census of 1920 have been used in revising throughout the volume all of the statistics, so that the material in that respect is up to date. Moreover, account has been taken of the new legislation in the United States and abroad. It seems probable, therefore, that the present edition should be

available for use until the time of the next United States census, with the addition of a special appendix covering any new legislative changes that may be made.

It has not been possible in every case to give credit to all the individuals taking part in collecting or preparing material for the Immigration Commission on which some of the chapters are largely based. Both authors had an active part in directing the work. In a number of cases special credit has been given at the beginning of a chapter to the experts of the Commission who were especially active in collecting or preparing material. Besides those should be mentioned Dr. Joseph A. Hill, who supervised the work on occupations and the fecundity of immigrant women; Professor H. A. Millis, who had immediate charge of the investigations on the Pacific Coast; Dr. E. A. Goldenweiser, who had special charge of the investigation of congestion in large cities, and W. W. Husband, secretary, who has written also chapter . . . ., and F. C. Croxton, chief statistician, who had general supervision of the work of the Commission.

In the Report of the Immigration Commission, due credit is given to the experts doing special work, many of whom, on account of their number, it would not be practicable to enumerate here, but whose work has been freely used.

Due credit should also be given to the Commissioner General of Immigration for the use of statistics from his annual reports and two diagrams showing immigration into the United States from 1820 to the present time.

The authors wish to acknowledge their indebtedness to Miss Elizabeth A. Hyde and Mrs. Franklin W.

Edgerton for their editorial suggestions and assistance in reading proofs of earlier editions, while Professor Smith, whose name appears on the title page, is chiefly responsible for the changes and additions of the present edition.

January, 1922.

J. W. J.

W. J. L.

## *PREFACE TO FIRST EDITION*

The Immigration Problem is one of vital interest to the American people. President Roosevelt said that he considered it, with the possible exception of that of the conservation of the natural resources of the country, our most important problem. Upon our policy in dealing with the immigrants depend, to a very noteworthy extent, the progress and nature of the development of the nation economically, politically, and socially.

Heretofore the discussions on the subject of Immigration have of necessity been based very largely upon conjecture or the personal observation of individuals, and, far too often, upon prejudice. There has not been in existence trustworthy statistical material showing the effects of immigration. The United States Immigration Commission during the last four years has, however, gathered such material on a scale complete enough to enable a reasonably accurate judgment to be formed regarding the effects of immigration.

Both of the authors of this book were associated with the Commission from the beginning, and it has been their purpose to put into shape for the public, in such a manner that its significance may be readily understood by any thoughtful reader, the gist of the information collected in the forty-two volumes of the original material published by the Commission. Free use has been made of the data of the Commission and

of the special reports of its experts. The writers are not advocates, but interpreters of facts. They are not members of any league for the restriction of immigrants or for the encouragement of a more liberal policy toward immigration. Until about the time the investigation was completed, they had not formulated in their own minds any definite policy which they believed the Government should follow. Such opinions as they have expressed in this volume are the result of careful deliberation following study of the facts gathered by the Commission.

If any person is inclined to differ from the judgments in this volume, it is suggested that he examine carefully the data in an unprejudiced spirit before he condemns the conclusions. The attempt has been made to furnish in either the text or the appendices enough material to enable the reader to form an independent opinion. But, if the material presented seems insufficient, the reader is referred to the detailed reports of the Immigration Commission, where the original material is presented in such form that a careful student may reach an independent judgment. On a question of so profound importance to the welfare of the country it is hoped that many citizens will attempt through careful study to reach a sound conclusion.

The authors wish to acknowledge their indebtedness to Miss Elizabeth A. Hyde for her editorial suggestions and her assistance in reading proofs.

*December, 1911.*

J. W. J.  
W. J. L.



## *PREFACE TO THIRD EDITION*

The first edition of "The Immigration Problem," of which the second was a direct reprint, drew largely from the first printing in pamphlet form of the "Abstract of the Report of the United States Immigration Commission." When the Immigration Commission's report was collected into volumes it was revised and numerous changes were made in many of the tables, altho none affected in any way the conclusions of the Commission.

In this, the third edition of "The Immigration Problem," every figure taken from the Immigration Commission's Report has been carefully compared with the final form of that Report. Efforts have also been made to bring the book up to date in all important particulars by using freely the results of the United States Census of 1910, which had not appeared at the time of the first edition, and also the latest Reports of the United States Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization. The late literature of private publishers on this subject has also been noted, so as to see where it was advisable to add new data or to complete arguments on any of the points considered.

In making this revision, some of the chapters have been completely rearranged; others have been cut in some places; still others have been largely supplemented. To the appendices a number of new tables have been added, with the thought that the book should furnish enough material to become the standard compact work of reference on this subject, which is sure to be of vital importance for years to come. Attention

is called particularly to this feature of the book. There should be noted also the colored diagram taken from the last Report, 1912, of the Bureau of Immigration, which gives by races, in very compact form, the statistics of immigration into the United States from 1820 to date.

Altho the Reports of the Immigration Commission—especially, and naturally, the abstracts—form the chief basic material for this work, in a good many instances facts are given or opinions are stated for which no specific authority is cited. Both authors of the book themselves worked for four years directly upon this investigation; and in consequence they have felt justified in giving facts on their own authority which have not elsewhere appeared in print.

It has not been possible in every case to give credit to all the individuals taking part in collecting or preparing material for the Immigration Commission on which some of the chapters are largely based. Both authors had an active part in directing the work. In a number of cases special credit has been given at the beginning of a chapter to the experts of the Commission who were especially active in collecting or preparing material. Besides those should be mentioned Dr. Joseph A. Hill, who supervised the work on occupations and the fecundity of immigrant women; Professor H. A. Millis, who had immediate charge of the investigations on the Pacific Coast; Dr. E. A. Goldenweiser, who had special charge of the investigation of congestion in large cities; and W. W. Husband, secretary, and F. C. Croxton, chief statistician, who had general supervision of the work of the Commission.

In the Report of the Immigration Commission, due credit is given to the experts doing special work, many

of whom, on account of their number, it would not be practicable to enumerate here, but whose work has been freely used.

While every effort has been made to secure accuracy, it is quite possible, of course, that, in attempting to give in brief form so many details of information, errors may have crept in. The authors will consider it a favor if their attention can be called to any such errors.

Mrs. Franklin W. Edgerton, besides reading all the proof, has rendered especial service in comparing and checking up carefully all statistical material, besides preparing the index and furnishing valuable suggestions throughout. The authors wish to acknowledge to her their special indebtedness.

*November, 1913.*

J. W. J.  
W. J. L.



# THE IMMIGRATION PROBLEM

## I

### INTRODUCTION

#### *The Statement of the Immigration Problem*

What is the immigration problem?

The people of the United States stand for what, in their judgment, is the highest, best civilization in the world. Beyond question this judgment is often a narrow one. Few people know the best characteristics of the leading European nations, much less those of the more remote civilizations of India, Japan and China; but however biased their judgment may be, the Americans undeniably wish to maintain their standard, and if possible to raise it. The problem becomes then, How does immigration affect American civilization now, and what is its influence likely to be in the future?

In order to solve a problem of this nature it becomes necessary:

1. To fix for ourselves a standard of civilization;
2. To secure all the facts about immigration that bear in any important way upon our civilization;
3. To measure as carefully as possible the influence of these facts upon that standard; and
4. As a practical people, if immigration and the conditions brought about by it are affecting our civilization unfavorably, to suggest measures, either governmental or social, that will prove to be a sufficient remedy.

Immigration of foreigners into the United States has been long recognized as one of our important social and political problems. Perhaps no other question has aroused more bitter feelings at times, or has called out more lofty sentiments of altruistic purpose. On the one hand, our Government has been besought to protect our people from the "degrading influence" of the immigrant. On the other, it has been declared that our doors should never be closed against those suffering from religious or political persecution. Generally speaking, there has been little difference of opinion regarding the latter sentiment. There has been great difference of opinion, however, relative to the effects, economic, social and moral, of immigration upon American standards of living. Usually the question, especially the effect of immigration upon industrial conditions, has been discussed with very little real knowledge.

Of late years American wage-earners generally have considered immigration injurious to their interests. The employers of labor, viewing the question from a different standpoint, have often urged the scarcity of labor and the need of immigration to develop properly our country's resources. Still others have felt that, regardless of the industrial effect, the ideals of our country as the home of the oppressed ought not to be lowered.

On February 20, 1907, a general Immigration Act passed by Congress became law. In the discussions before Congress no change in the general immigration policy of the Government was at first proposed. Later an amendment was passed by the Senate, inserting a literacy test for the immigrant, which provided for the exclusion of "all persons over sixteen years of



age and physically capable of reading, who can not read the English language or some other language; but an admissible immigrant or a person now in or hereafter admitted to this country may bring in or send for his wife, his children under eighteen years of age, and his parents or grandparents over fifty years of age, if they are otherwise admissible, whether they are so able to read or not.”\*

*Establishment of Immigration Commission to Study Problem*

Later, after much discussion in the House and the Senate and in conference, it was agreed that the question of a literacy test should be for the time being set aside, and that a commission should be created charged with making “full inquiry, examination and investigation of the subject,” this being clearly an admission that it was wise to be better informed on the facts regarding the immigrants and the influence of immigration before adopting any special test restrictive in its nature, or before making an important change in governmental policy.

A Commission, consisting of three Senators appointed by the Vice-President, three Representatives appointed by the Speaker of the House of Representatives, and three citizens appointed by the President of the United States, was created to make this investigation.†

\* Conclusions and Recommendations of Immigration Commission, p. 5. Cf., the provision in the bill passed by Congress in 1913, and vetoed by President Taft. Appendix, p. 414.

† The Commission consisted of: Senator William P. Dillingham, Vermont, *chairman*; Senator Henry Cabot Lodge, Massachusetts; Senator Asbury C. Latimer, South Carolina; Representative Benjamin F. Howell, New Jersey; Representative William S. Bennet, New York; Representative

In placing before this Commission his views regarding the scope of its inquiry, President Roosevelt said that, in his judgment, the most important problem before the American people, next possibly to the question of conservation, was that of immigration. The facts concerning immigration were not well known. Legislation heretofore had been built upon fragmentary information, and on local or individual inquiries. He hoped that the Commission would be so provided with funds and given such opportunity for its work that its investigation might be very thorough, so that hereafter, when immigration should again become the subject of legislation, there would be no need of going back of the Commission's report.

#### NATURE OF ITS WORK

The Commission viewed the problem in this light, and accordingly the scope of its inquiries was wide and every means was taken to make the work thorough and accurate.

In order to carry out the instructions of the President it was thought best to print not only the report and recommendations but also the basic material practically all of which is new, so that hereafter, when the question again comes up, there will be found in the forty-one volumes of the report the material on which the conclusions and recommendations of the Commission are based. Investigators need not accept those conclusions and recommendations on faith. They may if they wish go through

John L. Burnett, Georgia; Mr. Charles P. Neill, Texas; Mr. Jeremiah W. Jenks, New York; Mr. William R. Wheeler, California.

Senator Latimer died February 20, 1908, and was succeeded by Senator Anselm J. McLaurin, Mississippi.

Senator McLaurin died December 22, 1909, and was succeeded by Senator Le Roy Percy, Mississippi.

the original material and make an independent judgment. This enormous mass of facts has, however, been well digested and summarized and is easily accessible. The facts now are known.

In its conclusions and recommendations the Commission indicated certain lines along which standards of judgment might and ought to be fixt. In other directions they assume without formal statement what they believe to be the accepted standards of the people; but whatever may be the judgments regarding the recommendations the facts set forth are undeniable.

For the purpose of this book it is, however, desirable that at the beginning the principles be summarized on which, in the judgment of the authors, the standard of civilization of our country may be affected by immigration. Throughout the discussion of the facts these principles should be kept in mind.

*Principles Upon Which American Civilization is  
Based*

It is extremely difficult to analyze a civilization so complex as ours. All will agree that civilization depends upon the characteristics and attainments of the individuals of whom the State is composed, and upon their relations one to another. In the discussion of the question of immigration, as of all other social or political questions, no better beginning can be made than to use the old division of human characteristics into physical, mental and moral. In many cases so interdependent and overlapping are the influences molding these qualities that the effects of any one influence can scarcely be separately analyzed. For example, industrial prosperity in the community affects

both the physical and moral characteristics of the people, so that at times it may be necessary to consider some questions apart from the named analysis. In fact we have laid especial emphasis upon the economic influence of immigration as affecting the standard of living without attempting to analyze fully the physical, mental and moral effects of a change in the standard of living.

*Subjects Treated in Determining Effects of Immigration upon American Standards*

The chief subjects of a study of immigration may, therefore, be briefly summarized as follows:

PHYSICAL, MENTAL AND MORAL CHARACTERISTICS

1. The effect of immigration upon the physical characteristics of the American people as shown by:

(a) The health of the immigrant on his arrival in this country, and his effect upon the health of the community.

(b) The effect of the American environment upon the physical characteristics of the immigrant and his children.

2. The effect of the immigrant upon the mental characteristics of the American people as shown by:

(a) Illiteracy of the various races of immigrants.

(b) The relation of the immigrants to our public schools, and the effect of the schools upon the children of immigrants.

(c) The papers, books and associations founded and supported by the immigrants.

(d) The occupations of the immigrants that may serve to indicate mental characteristics.

3. The effect of immigration upon the morals of the American people, as shown by:

(a) The criminal immigrant. The moral characteristics of the various races may be indicated by the number of crimes and the character of the crimes committed by them.

(b) The social evil and the white-slave traffic, indicated in part by court records and observations of social workers and special investigators.

(c) The immigrant pauper: A study of the immigrants in the charity hospitals and of the relief given by the charitable societies to immigrants.\*

#### POLITICAL AND SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS

4. The effect of immigration upon American institutions, as shown by:

(a) Political effects, indicated by the relative number of immigrants of various races that become naturalized, and by the methods employed by political managers to influence the votes of the immigrants.

(b) The social effects as indicated by:

1. The church affiliations and religious practises and customs of the immigrants of different races.

2. The immigrant family, as shown in part by the marriage relations; the fecundity of immigrant women, as compared with American women; the children of the immigrants; the tendency also toward establishing families here, or leaving families in Europe, with the expectation of returning to them.

3. The immigrant colony. Both in our large cities and in agricultural districts, the effect of immigration upon our institutions has been profoundly modified by

\* Pauperism is, of course, to be considered also in other than its moral aspects, but it is conveniently classified here.

the frequent inclination of the immigrants to form separate colonies, which are maintained sometimes for generations.

4. Housing and living conditions. The congestion of immigrants in certain sections of our cities and industrial centers, the bunk-house or lodging-house for men without families who do not become permanent residents, the ownership of homes, and similar matters which affect living conditions, are of profound significance to society.

#### INDUSTRIAL CONDITIONS

5. The effect of immigration upon the economic and industrial conditions of the United States, as shown by:

(a) The occupations of the immigrant and of his children. Have racial characteristics or the European customs of the immigrants so determined the occupations which they enter here as to have produced any material modification of the relations between agriculture, manufacturing, mining, trading, transportation and other occupations?

(b) Changes in industrial methods. Has the incoming of the immigrant affected the use of machinery or modified the form of our industrial organization? How has it affected the geographical distribution of industries?

(c) The employment of women and children as wage-earners.

(d) The displacement of American laborers or the immigrant wage-earners who arrived in this country twenty years ago by the recent immigrants from different countries.



(e) Labor organizations. Have the immigrants strengthened or weakened the labor organizations, and has the effect upon them been beneficial or injurious to the wage-earning classes?

(f) The standard of living. At the base of every civilization stand the ideals of the people and their standards of living. The standard of living has so profound an influence upon the probability of the attainment of many ideals that it is to be considered possibly the most fundamental factor in determining the quality of the country's civilization. While one may well agree with James Russell Lowell, that "material success is good, but only as the necessary preliminary to better things," it is impossible to deny the fact that material success is often, if not always, a preliminary that is absolutely necessary to better things, so far as the question concerns development of mental characteristics, and perhaps also the modification of moral and social institutions.

### *Need of Impartial Study of Remedies*

If the facts relative to immigration, which are now available, show such injurious effects upon American standards of civilization as reasonably to awaken a fear regarding the stability or progress of the best of those institutions, it is clearly the duty of every citizen to face, clear-eyed, boldly, these facts. It is no less his duty to judge, not sentimentally, but sanely, wisely and sympathetically, those conditions, and to determine what are the wisest remedies for the evils, and what are the practicable measures to be taken to establish and to secure for the future the maintenance and progress of our civilization.

## II

### THE CAUSES OF IMMIGRATION

#### *Escape from Religious or Political Persecution*

In our school histories all American children read that their forefathers in the colonial days fled from Europe to America to escape religious or political persecution. In later and more complete text-books mention is likewise made of the fact that certain of the colonists were influenced by the motive of commercial advantages, and that still others, criminals or paupers, were shipped from their home country against their will for that country's good. So much emphasis, however, has been laid upon the desire of our forefathers to escape from religious or political persecution, that in the minds of most Americans that influence remains as explaining the chief incentive for our early immigration.

So much sympathy was later aroused, especially during the revolutionary days of 1848 in Europe, for those who, struggling for a constitutional government in their home countries, failed and were obliged to emigrate, in order to escape political punishment, that this motive for immigration seems to most of us a force with greater influence than it, in fact, has exerted. It is probably the fact that, with the exception of the Pilgrim Fathers, possibly the Palatines, some of the Scotch-Irish in the early part of the eighteenth century, and here and there a relatively few political refugees, the great mass of immigrants

throughout the entire course of our history have come to this country influenced primarily by the economic motive. Even with the Palatines and the Scotch-Irish, the economic motive was often prominent.

In the past a very large number of Russian Jews were refugees from persecution. A much smaller number of Finns, thwarted by the old Russian Government in their attempts to secure or maintain political freedom, were moved to turn their backs upon their own country. From Roumania, Turkey and other parts of southeastern Europe and Asia have come other immigrants, such as the Armenians, who, suffering on account of their religious or political beliefs, preferred to leave their home country for one which they believed would afford them freedom. In many instances, doubtless, these people are political idealists, or religious extremists, whose views will scarcely meet with approval in this country, but who nevertheless will be much freer here to make political propaganda, and whose views in many instances may well have an educative influence; but there doubtless remain, when they are taken individually, many persons who are really in need of escape from persecution, either religious or political, that is genuine and severe.

*At Present, Motive Primarily Economic*

Taking them, however, in the mass and comparing this number with the very much greater number of those who are influenced by the economic motive, it is scarcely too much to say that at the present time the influence which is bringing so large a number of immigrants is the economic motive rather than any other.

Chaotic conditions in Europe, especially in Russia, have brought millions face to face with starvation.

The World War lowered economic standards in many parts of Europe, more particularly in those parts from which the bulk of our immigrants have come and are coming. During the same period the economic standards in America have been raised. In consequence, the economic motive, which has always been the dominant one, urging large masses of people to migrate, has been greatly strengthened. This condition presents a serious situation to our political leaders since it involves possibly a mass immigration of peoples from Europe to the United States. The fear of such a probability has made the acceptance on the part of America of a permanent policy of drastic restriction likely as a measure of protection for American standards of living.

*Wages and Standards of Living Much Lower in  
Europe than in the United States*

The contrast in conditions between the parts of Europe from which most of our immigrants come to-day and the United States, is perhaps most noticeable in agricultural districts. Our farmers and farm laborers are, on the whole, the most prosperous and comfortable, of our so-called laborers, with the exception of our skilled artisans. In Russia, where the change from a condition of serfdom has not always resulted in greater comfort for the people, a crop failure is likely to result in a famine. Such a condition prevails in a large part of Russia at the present time. In other countries the methods of cultivation are often so primitive, the markets so difficult of access, the taxes so high, that the margin of profit is very low. A bad crop or two often means disaster—emigration, if possible, where that can be attained.

The money wages in southern and eastern Europe,

from which more than 80 per cent. of our present immigrants are coming, are indeed very low as compared with those in the United States—often not over one-third as much. Moreover, the assertion often made that, owing to lower prices in Europe, the low wages will furnish practically as good living conditions as those in the United States is a mistaken one. While the peasants or workmen may live on those wages, the standard is far below that of the United States as regards houses, which are often mere huts with earth floors; or clothing, which is scant or coarse as compared with that of the corresponding classes in the United States; or food, in many cases the people being rarely able to afford any food but the simplest vegetables, meat being tasted only on an occasional feast day, or among the better classes perhaps on Sundays.

It is to improve these conditions that most of the immigrants leave their country, often with the thought of making a home in the new country to which they can later bring their families, if they are unable to take their families with them. But often, too, they take the risk of breaking up their homes temporarily with the thought that by rigid economy and hard work for three to five years in the United States, they can send enough money home to purchase land, so that they may improve decidedly their economic and likewise their social status in the home country, and become, instead of mere laborers, peasant proprietors, with the opportunity of placing their children in a class distinctly above their own.



### *Military Service*

In some countries, also, where military service is compulsory, the opportunity of escaping that service for two or three years at the time when life's tasks are just beginning is a motive that helps to emigration. This motive, too, has an economic phase, since frequently the entrance upon military service would mean the interruption of a steady employment that would prevent saving for at least the period of the service itself.

The result of this economic pressure in the home country is that the United States is likely to receive as immigrants the most enterprising and the strongest of the hand-workers, whatever the occupation may be.

Passage money from relatives in America, assistance when they arrive here and the competition of transportation lines, however, now make it much easier for the weaker and less ambitious to emigrate.

### *Effect of Emigration upon European Countries*

The effect of emigration upon the European countries has both an evil and a beneficial aspect. Naturally the different governments do not wish to lose the military service of the young emigrant, and in most cases, unless that service has been performed, the emigrant is likely to be held responsible whenever he may wish to return to his home country, even for a visit. Moreover, the removal from the labor force of the nation at the period of greatest ambition and energy, if not of skill, of hundreds of thousands of their workers, can not but be detrimental, provided those workers leave to become citizens of the new country.

In a very large percentage of instances, previous to the war, the emigrant, after a period of a few years



abroad, returned to his home country with added financial means, and what is perhaps of still greater importance, a far wider outlook upon life and business methods. Frequently, too, he was inspired with new ambition and hope, which made him much more efficient than he could have been had he remained at home.

In an investigation made by the Italian Government into conditions in southern Italy, the beneficial effect of the returning emigrant was exprest in the strongest terms. Not merely did he bring new wealth into the country, but what was of still greater importance, he brought with him the American spirit of intelligent enterprise, which made him a much worthier and more helpful citizen.

### *Attitude of European Governments toward Emigration*

Altho all European countries, with the possible exception of Russia and Turkey, recognize the right of their citizens to emigrate, provided they have discharged their pending obligations to their own country, still the attitude of these governments toward emigration is determined very largely by the factors mentioned above. In all countries the economic influences are recognized in the long run as the determining factor.

In some cases, however, population pressure at home—Italy and Japan are examples—has forced to the front the necessity of relieving such pressure through an emigration of large numbers of their people. Recently an Italian premier said that it was necessary for Italy to emigrate each year some 300,000 Italians in order to relieve pressure at home. A constant cry is heard from Japanese statesmen that Japan

must secure territory or must have the opportunity to relieve pressure at home through the exporting of surplus Japanese population. Such a demand raises many serious questions. What moral right, for example, has a nation with a low economic standard and a rapidly increasing population to impose its surplus upon more favorably situated countries wherein a more reasonable birthrate prevails? For example, have Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South America or the United States a moral obligation to take care of the surplus population needs of other countries? Does emigration from Japan or Italy under such conditions help in permanently alleviating conditions at home? Is not the problem rather that of restraining population increase?

Many countries are opposed to the emigration of able men in their prime. They have had the expense of raising them and fitting them to become self-supporting wage-earners. If at the period when they are just beginning to be productive they emigrate, the expense of their rearing is an absolute loss.

On the other hand, so far as they believe that the emigrants are going to the United States to remain but a short period, and in the meantime to send back to the home country their surplus earnings, and then later themselves return, the foreign governments are willing to encourage their going.

### *Effect upon the United States of the Return to Europe of the Immigrant*

It can hardly be said that taken by itself the sending back to the old country of the savings of the immigrant is directly an injury to the United States.

Speaking broadly, for every dollar sent more than a dollar's worth of productive labor has been expended here. The worker has fully earned his dollar. On the other hand, if that dollar, instead of being invested in his home country, were invested in the United States the benefit would be greater. America would have the productive influence not only of the labor but also of the capital made from the savings; and, furthermore, this country and not the home country would be deriving in the years to come the benefit of the added experience, improved skill and stimulated spirit of enterprise of the immigrant. In returning to Europe he raises, if he has been successful, the standard of living of that country. That makes his country a better market for us. While, therefore, we may not properly oppose the return of the immigrant, we may well offer inducements to change his mental attitude so that he will prefer to make his investments and his permanent residence here. Again, if the process of selection is practicable, we may well select those immigrants whose intention it is permanently to identify themselves with their adopted country, rather than those whose residence is but temporary.

But the question of the transfer of unskilled labor from Europe to America must be considered, not only from the point of view of the country of emigration, but likewise from that of immigration. Our papers frequently discuss the need of a cheap labor supply to build our railroads, dig our canals, till our fields and perform the manifold other kinds of work which call for unskilled labor. This demand for a large supply of unskilled labor had doubtless justification in the days when the first Pacific railroads were

building, and when the country was recovering from the shock of the Civil War and the consequent loss of a considerable percentage of its labor supply. But is the demand to-day for cheap labor? Has the United States entered a new stage of industrial life in which the emphasis should be placed upon an educated, efficient, technically trained, rather than upon a cheap labor supply?

### *How Far Does America Need a Cheap Labor Supply?*

Before one can express any definite opinion on the subject it is necessary to inquire, Who it is that is asserting the need of an increased supply of labor? and, still further, What constitutes a real demand for labor? The suggestion of a scant labor supply has come primarily from the employers of labor and those closely associated with them, who need thousands of unskilled laborers for work in mines or in large manufacturing plants, or in public improvements. At certain seasons of the year, also, the demand comes from farmers who wish to harvest their crops and who would be glad to pay a considerable extra wage for the sake of securing this temporary labor, asserting the need of our increased supply of labor.

### *What is the True Demand for Labor?*

But what constitutes a real demand for labor? Is it a demand for more hands at lower than the prevailing rates, so that the manufacturer may reap a larger profit? That has seemed to be the judgment of some of those, at any rate, who have been attempting to import labor for work on farms, and perhaps also of certain large employers who, while not directly importing labor, have been willing to encourage the com-

ing of many laborers with the thought that they could furnish these work, temporarily at least, at low wages.

But we can hardly speak of a proper demand for labor unless we mean a demand at wages certainly not less than the prevailing rates, with the conditions of labor not less favorable than those now obtaining. In very many instances the labor supply in any locality would be found to be elastic, provided the employer were willing to increase his wages but slightly or to improve the conditions under which his laborers work.

The attitude of the American wage-earner is different, not only from that of the employer, but from that of the immigrant as well. The employer wishes to secure efficient help at low cost. The more intelligent of the wage-earners naturally prefer a demand for labor, which means a demand at something more than existing rates, or under conditions better than those prevailing. The immigrant unfamiliar with American conditions, often not even understanding the language in which he must make his contract, and confronted with working methods which are new to him, while naturally preferring the best he can get, is often willing to work under conditions and at wages which would not appeal to American working men, but which to him seem satisfactory, even liberal, because they are so much better than any he has ever known before. Moreover, when the wage-earner is one unfamiliar, as are most immigrants, with American conditions, he is likely to be eager, perhaps too eager, to secure work at almost any wage above that affording a mere subsistence. Usually he is not in touch with the American working man or with trade-unions, and does not know what



he could do by proper effort. He is not a member of their trade-organization, and can not bargain through officials who know the conditions. Moreover, if he is one who is expecting as soon as possible to return to his home country with his savings, what he dreads most of all is lack of work, and he is willing to take low wages and bad working conditions, rather than to be idle even for a short time and see any of his savings disappear.

### *Immediate Inducement of Immigration*

In the large majority of cases, doubtless, the immediate inducement to the emigrants to leave home and sail for America comes in the form of personal letters from friends or members of their own families already in the United States. It is thus that they learn of the much higher wages and the better living conditions; and usually they are practically sure of a job almost as soon as they arrive, at wages which seem to them more than satisfactory.

Such letters are, of course, of great interest in a country village. Often they are by no means kept in the family, but pass from hand to hand till a large proportion of the villagers have seen them, and in consequence have felt the lure of the new and prosperous land. On the other hand, the influence of industrial depression in the United States is in the same manner felt almost as quickly, and the tide of emigration recedes.

### THE RETURNED IMMIGRANT

In large sections of Italy, Sicily, and Austria-Hungary, in almost every village, will be found some of the returned emigrants who, after a few years of



prosperous work in the United States, have returned with means which seem to the uncultured peasant ample and with a social status much improved. The living example of such a man is perhaps a stronger influence toward leading his neighbors to emigrate to the United States than any letter, tho it is perhaps not so frequently a moving cause.

#### STEAMSHIP AND RAILWAY COMPANIES

Many consider the means taken by the transportation companies a chief cause of emigration. These great companies who derive an income from the transportation of emigrants, naturally, as far as possible, advertise their business, throughout the countries from which most emigrants come.

Altho under the laws of most countries they can not enlarge at length upon the prosperous conditions of the new country, or upon the comforts and delights of travel, but must merely make announcement of their sailings and accommodations and prices, nevertheless the agents of these companies by the hundreds do invade the country districts, especially of southern Europe, and by skilful argument and even perhaps by enthusiastic descriptions of the delights and comforts and satisfactions of a home life in America, stimulate many more to come than otherwise would be possible. These agents, doubtless, at times have deliberately misrepresented conditions in America, tho it is difficult to ascertain how widespread this influence was. Such work is often done in secret according to the United States Immigration Commission. A good authority stated that two of the leading steamship lines before the war had 5,000 or 6,000 ticket agents in

Galicia alone, that there was "a great hunt" for emigrants, and that the work was very successful there. The steerage business is of great importance to all the lines operating passenger ships between those countries and the United States, and the keen competition stimulates greatly their efforts.

The chief field of activity of these "secret" agents was in Eastern and Southeastern Europe. In Russia such agents not merely procured tickets for emigrants but took an active part in securing passports or in aiding them to leave the country contrary to law.

In Hungary, members of the Immigration Commission were shown letters written by such agents to persons instructing them how to leave the country without the consent of the Government and indicating routes to be followed by which they might avoid the control station. Records were seen of hundreds of cases of these secret agents who had been convicted, fined or imprisoned for thus soliciting emigration contrary to law, but the work is profitable and continues.

#### ASSISTED EMIGRATION

In earlier days, as elsewhere noted, some European countries assisted their paupers or criminals to emigrate to the United States. There is no such movement now, tho doubtless local officials at times wink at the departure of some people of these classes—especially criminals or those with criminal tendencies. Such action is contrary to law, and the people would be promptly debarred, if discovered.

Canada and some of the South American countries are ready to receive certain selected immigrants, who

are assisted to come, and Canada pays a bonus to thousands of ticket agents for directing emigrants to Canada who will go upon farms or into domestic service; but no such movement is permitted by the United States. It may be noted, however, that persons are allowed to engage abroad and bring into the United States domestic servants for their own families.

*Influence of Immigrant Banks and Agencies in  
America*

Besides the influence brought directly to bear in Europe, an indirect influence is also exerted by the immigrant banks, ticket agencies and other similar enterprises conducted mainly by immigrants for immigrants in the United States. It is the chief business of these institutions to exchange money, send money abroad, sell steamship tickets, and do other kinds of business that directly concern the immigrant. Naturally, the business flourishes better the larger the savings of the immigrant, and the more frequently he is ready to send such savings home. Moreover, the longer these institutions can keep the immigrant from becoming an American citizen, and can keep him continually sending his profits home, the more successful the business is. Their work is constant and influential.

### III

#### CHARACTERISTICS OF IMMIGRANTS WHICH AFFECT AMERICAN INSTITUTIONS

##### *Political and Social Institutions Molded by Conditions*

Nations desire naturally to preserve their own institutions, or gradually to modify them from time to time as they themselves see fit. Each country has institutions suited to its own population and its own needs. There is no absolutely best form of government or of social life. The presumption is that the government existing in any country is itself the product, to a considerable degree, of the circumstances under which that country has developed and, in consequence, that it is for the time being not merely the government "that the people deserve," but the only government that under the circumstances is then possible. Of course, it is to be expected that as time goes on governmental and social institutions will gradually change with the changing circumstances, but the instinct that any people has to retain its own institutions is not only normal, but it probably in the long run tends toward the best development of a people.

##### *Character and Extent of Immigration May Seriously Affect American Institutions*

In consequence of this fact, while a country may well derive great benefit from the ideas of government and of society brought into it by immigrants, it can usually make wise use of these principles only gradu-

ally, as the immigrants themselves become assimilated with the older population and the process of change must be a gradual one and slow. The imposing of new institutions from outside by a horde of new immigrants could hardly fail to be detrimental, however good such institutions might have been in the home country.

Any student of immigration, therefore, needs to consider carefully not only the extent of the new immigration, but also the character of the immigrants themselves, and the effect that they have upon a country's institutions.

### *Countries of Origin and Character of the Early and Late Immigration\**

A study of the immigration into the United States, from the time that our immigration records begin in 1819 to date, shows a change in the character of the immigration as well as in its extent. During the last twenty-five to thirty years so marked has been the change in the type of immigrants that it is convenient to classify our immigration as the old, that is, the immigrants prior to 1883, and the new, namely, those coming since that date. The former class includes primarily immigrants from England, Ireland, Scotland, Wales, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden and Switzerland. These countries furnished some 95 per cent. of the immigrants coming into this country before 1883. In 1907, 81 per cent. of the European immigrants, including Syrians,

\* The statistics in this chapter hold for the immigration which has been coming to the United States since the ending of the War and before the introduction of the three per cent. law.

came from Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, Greece, Italy, Montenegro, Poland, Portugal Roumania, Russia, Servia, Spain, Syria and Turkey. The brief table for the years 1882 and 1907 puts the matter tersely.

### TOTAL EUROPEAN IMMIGRATION TO THE UNITED STATES

*In years specified, by class of immigrants*

CLASS	Year		Per cent. of total immigration	
	1882	1907	1882	1907
Old immigration .....	563,175	227,851	86.9	19.0
New Immigration .....	84,973	971,608	13.1	81.0
Not specified .....	38	107	(a)	(a)
Total .....	648,186	1,199,566	100.0	100.0

a Less than 0.05 per cent.

The change in the character of the immigration is especially marked by the fact that during the last few years more immigrants have come from any one of the three countries of Austria-Hungary, Italy or Russia than from all of the North European countries taken together that formerly furnished the bulk of European immigrants.

The rapidly rising post-war tide of immigration shows no change in this tendency. Southern and eastern European peoples predominate. The enactment of the recent legislation which limits the number entering the United States to a percentage basis of those already here was passed in order to modify this tendency. The figures for 1914 are very striking. In that year only 10 per cent. of the entire immigration came from northern and western Europe.

Certain characteristics of the immigrants exhibited in the period since 1900 also emphasized the fact that the new immigration differed more radically in type



from the earlier American residents than did the old immigration, and that the problem of assimilation was becoming much more difficult, even tho the numbers had remained the same, while the very great actual growth in the number of immigrants was vastly increasing this difficulty, the significance of which should be borne in mind.

#### CITY VERSUS COUNTRY DWELLERS

The immigrants of the earlier day came to this country primarily with the purpose of becoming permanent dwellers; and a very large proportion of them, agriculturists abroad, went to our rural districts, took up land and became farmers here. Circumstances have so changed that the newer immigrants follow to a very great extent a different course. With the exception of the Hebrews, primarily from Russia, who are by compulsion in that country largely city dwellers, the present-day immigrants likewise come from country districts. Coming to this country, however, they find that our supply of free agricultural land is practically taken up. In consequence, these rural peasants have flocked into our industrial centers and have entered upon occupations for which they have had no previous training.

The 1920 census shows that this movement toward the mining and manufacturing centers is still as great as ever. In fact, the growth in population in the United States during the past ten years has been largely, if not entirely a city growth. Much is heard of the need for distribution of the immigrant, but it would seem from these census statistics that the drift is decidedly toward the city.\*

\* See page 99.

## PHYSICAL CONDITION

In the early days there was no careful inspection of the immigrants. Many came to this country feeble or diseased, with the result that comparatively soon they became a burden upon our charities, and beyond a doubt, in many instances, affected unfavorably, through the contagious diseases that they brought, the health of the community. Our later immigration laws, forbidding the entrance of those afflicted with any loathsome or contagious disease, or of those in such a condition of health that they are likely to become a public charge, together with the holding of the steamship companies responsible, to the extent of compelling them to return, free, passengers rejected by our immigration officials here, and, in the case of the insane or diseased, fining them in addition \$100 for each case, have brought about a very great change in this regard. The careful inspection abroad, sometimes by representatives of the United States Government, otherwise by inspectors of the steamship companies, and the final examination at the port of entry, have brought about the result that with very rare exceptions every immigrant admitted to this country is now in good health, and is not bringing with him the germs of any disease that might prove detrimental.

## ALIEN SEAMEN

Owing to the principle of international comity and the immemorial custom of treating seamen as members of a privileged class, there has been a loophole in connection with the alien seamen which has admitted into the country many immigrants who are very undesirable, either because they are diseased or

criminal or otherwise ineligible, altho these seamen, of course, form a very small percentage of the entire number of immigrants coming. Nevertheless, doubtless a very large proportion of the alien seamen who enter would not be admitted if regularly examined, as are other immigrants. Unfortunately, coming as members of the crews or as stowaways, they are allowed shore leave and desert, thus escaping inspection. It is to be hoped and expected that a modification of the law will in the near future stop this practise.

#### SEX AND FAMILY LIFE

Perhaps the most fundamental of the institutions of modern times is that of the family. With, of course, notable individual exceptions, the men and women who promote best the highest civilization are gathered into families, and have the benefit of a home life. The members of the old immigration, as a rule, came much more generally in families, with the evident purpose of making America their permanent home, than do the members of the new immigration. If we classify our European emigration (including Syrian), to the United States by class and sex, in the fiscal years 1899-1909, inclusive, we note that of the old immigration 41.5 per cent. were females, while of the new immigration only 27 per cent. are females. This indicates most clearly that the members of the new immigration are much less likely to remain and become thoroughly assimilated to American institutions than those coming from countries of the old immigration.

## EUROPEAN IMMIGRATION (INCLUDING SYRIAN), TO THE UNITED STATES

*By class and sex, in fiscal years 1899-1909, inclusive.*

[Compiled by the United States Immigration Commission from reports of the Commissioner-General of Immigration]

CLASS	Number			Per cent.		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Fem.	Total
Old immig'n...	1,329,923	943,859	2,273,782	58.5	41.5	100.0
New immig'n...	4,338,005	1,601,247	5,939,252	73.0	27.0	100.0
Total ....	5,667,928	2,545,106	8,213,034	69.0	31.0	100.0

## THE AGE OF IMMIGRANTS

Considered solely from the economic viewpoint, immigration brings a noteworthy contribution to the productivity of the country, while lessening materially the expenses of developing producers. Speaking generally, children until they are fourteen years of age, or above, are merely a burden upon the community, because of material expenses with no net return. A similar statement applies to many people who have reached old age. The line can not be so distinctly drawn here, many people being still productive at advanced years. There is no very marked difference between the old and the new immigration in this particular, the great mass of immigrants of both classes being found in the groups between the years of fourteen and forty-four—years that clearly are in the best productive period. In these cases the saving of a thousand or more dollars in the keeping and the training of children from babyhood up to the productive period is clearly an enormous one.

The following brief table of European immigration for the ten years, 1899-1909, by age classes, shows that this saving must run up to many millions of dollars, the percentage of immigrants coming at the most productive years being in both cases something more than 80 per cent.

EUROPEAN IMMIGRATION (INCLUDING SYRIAN) TO THE UNITED STATES

*in fiscal years 1899 to 1909, by class and age groups.*

Class Immigration	Number				Per cent.		
	Total	Under 14 years	14 to 44 years	45 yrs. or over	Under 14 years	14 to 44 years	45 yrs. or over
Old	2,273,782	290,164	1,828,382	155,236	12.8	80.4	6.8
New	5,939,252	723,810	4,958,124	257,318	12.2	83.5	4.3
Total	8,213,034	1,013,974	6,786,506	412,554	12.3	82.6	5.0

The striking feature with regard to the age of immigrants, and indeed one of the most striking and significant features of European immigration to the United States in any regard, is the fact that so many of the immigrants are of the producing and so few are of the dependent age. And yet it may fairly be questioned whether the advantage of training in the American environment is not enough fully to offset its enormous aggregate expense.

OCCUPATIONS OF IMMIGRANTS

Immigrants are far more readily assimilated and are also likely to be better satisfied if they can engage in occupations that are congenial to themselves as well as profitable. Unfortunately, the old and the new

immigration differ decidedly in respect to the occupations followed by the immigrants in this country, as compared with their occupation in the country of their birth.

The best practical classification of the different occupations under general heads is shown in the table below:

OCCUPATION OF EUROPEAN IMMIGRANTS (INCLUDING SYRIANS) TO THE UNITED STATES

*Hebrews excepted, by occupation and class, 1899-1909*

[Compiled by the United States Immigration Commission from reports of the Commissioner-General of Immigration]

OCCUPATION	Number of persons		Per cent.	
	Old immigration	New immigration (Hebrews excepted)	Old immigration	New immigration (Hebrews excepted)
Professional .....	56,406	17,080	2.5	0.3
Skilled laborers .....	442,754	441,984	19.5	8.9
Farm laborers .....	138,598	1,142,064	6.1	23.1
Farmers .....	40,633	42,605	1.8	.9
Common laborers .....	402,074	1,814,180	17.7	36.7
Servants .....	424,698	403,784	18.7	8.2
No occupation .....	678,510	1,041,049	29.8	21.0
Miscellaneous .....	90,109	46,324	4.0	.9
Total .....	2,273,782	4,949,070	100.0	100.0

It is just, probably, to consider farm laborers and common laborers as unskilled. Doubtless also those marked as having no occupation should, generally speaking, be classed in the same group. Leaving out the Hebrews, as practically none of them are farm laborers, we find that about 60 per cent. of the new immigration consists of farm laborers and common laborers. These classes furnish less than 25 per cent. of the old immigration. Even with the Hebrews in-



cluded we find the percentage of unskilled, or common, and farm laborers much larger among the new immigrants. The percentage of farmers as distinguished from farm laborers is larger among races found in the old immigration, tho owing to the greatly increased total immigration the absolute number is somewhat larger among the new.

A careful study of the figures, however, shows from this fact alone that the new immigration is much more difficult to assimilate than the old, because of these characteristics of occupation. A percentage of the total immigration, therefore, that might readily have been assimilated, provided the immigrants were of the older type, might prove much more difficult of assimilation with immigrants of the new type.

### *Illiteracy*

The question of illiteracy, as a result of the examinations held by the army authorities, has been brought forcibly to the attention of the American people. These examinations showed that approximately 25 per cent. of the draft army were unable to use effectively the English language and that much must be done with both the foreign born and the first generation born in the United States if assimilation, political and social, is to be attained. The United States, according to the 1920 census, is one of the most illiterate of civilized nations. Altho final figures are not ready, it is evident that the army of illiterates will not fall far short of 6,000,000 or 7,000,000. Two million of these illiterates are in nine of the Southern States. The States with a large foreign-born population have a still greater problem. New Jersey has 127,661 illiterates, of whom 111,595 are foreign born.

Illiteracy is, however, a factor of prime importance in connection with the assimilation politically and socially of the immigrants themselves, many of whom come here in the days of their early manhood, soon become voters, and remain a permanent factor, especially in our large cities, in determining the results of our elections. In most States there is no literacy test for the suffrage. The granting of the vote to women has enfranchised a large number of women who have become citizens solely through the naturalization of their husbands, altho they themselves have done nothing to warrant such citizenship. The husband, in order to become naturalized must read and write, have a knowledge of the Constitution, and show evidences of good citizenship. These tests are not required of the woman securing citizenship through marriage. Such a situation puts a premium upon an uneducated citizenship. In New York City, in 1910, there were 870,140 foreign born women, of whom 360,255 were citizens, in most cases through the naturalization of their husbands.

Miss Marion K. Clark, Chief Investigator of the Bureau of Industries and Immigration of the New York State Industrial Commission, reported that in the fiscal year 1919-1920, there were 345,672 industrial accidents in the State, a large proportion of which and the consequent losses incident thereto were undoubtedly due to illiteracy, the applicants to the number of 70 per cent. of the total requiring the services of an interpreter to present their claims. At the time they are admitted into the United States as immigrants, the percentage of illiteracy among the races composing the new immigration is much greater than that among the old, the

difference being that between 35.8 per cent. and 2.7 per cent., as shown in the following tables.

The larger table on this page containing a list of the races or peoples and the degree of illiteracy among the immigrants admitted in the years 1899-1909, shows in a very striking manner the differences among the various immigrant races in this respect.

#### NUMBER AND PER CENT. OF ILLITERATES

14 years of age and over, in each race of European immigrants (including Syrian) admitted into the United States in the fiscal years 1899 to 1909, inclusive.

[Compiled by the United States Immigration Commission from reports of the Commissioner-General of Immigration]

RACE OR PEOPLE	Total number 14 years of age or over	Persons 14 years of age or over who could neither read nor write	
		Number	Per cent.
Armenian .....	18,404	4,433	24.1
Bohemian and Moravian.....	72,762	1,246	1.7
Bulgarian, Servian, and Montenegrin...	80,854	33,759	41.8
Croatian and Slovenian .....	283,270	103,156	36.4
Dalmatian, Bosnian and Herzegovinian.	26,123	10,789	41.3
Dutch and Flemish.....	58,525	2,767	4.7
English .....	302,657	3,419	1.1
Finnish .....	123,415	1,681	1.4
French .....	81,449	4,401	5.4
German .....	566,578	28,854	5.1
Greek .....	170,513	45,960	27.0
Hebrew .....	744,395	191,544	25.7
Irish .....	381,095	10,233	2.7
Italian, North .....	311,243	36,869	11.8
Italian, South .....	1,517,768	822,113	54.2
Lithuanian .....	140,540	68,555	48.8
Magyar .....	<sup>a</sup> 283,430	<sup>b</sup> 32,205	11.4
Polish .....	742,753	263,177	35.4
Portuguese .....	49,799	33,960	68.2
Rumanian .....	67,029	23,232	34.7
Russian .....	61,287	23,607	38.5
Ruthenian .....	113,931	58,070	51.0
Scandinavian .....	483,049	2,168	.4
Scotch .....	95,073	682	.7
Slovak .....	312,954	75,914	24.3
Spanish .....	41,000	6,004	14.6
Syrian .....	42,463	22,978	54.1
Turkish .....	11,408	6,722	58.9
Welsh .....	15,191	309	2.0
Others .....	102	18	17.6
Total .....	7,199,061	1,918,825	26.7

<sup>a</sup> Including 693 Hungarians in 1899. <sup>b</sup> Including 35 Hungarians in 1899.

## NUMBER AND PER CENT. OF ILLITERATES

14 years of age or over, in each class of European immigration (including Syrian) in fiscal years 1899 to 1909, inclusive.

CLASS	Total number 14 yrs. or over	Persons 14 years or over who could neither read nor write	
		Number	Per cent.
Old immigration .....	1,983,617	52,833	2.7
New immigration .....	5,215,444	1,865,992	35.8
Total .....	7,199,061	1,918,825	26.7

*Inclination to Return to Europe*

The nature of our activities, both private and public, is determined primarily by our purpose and intentions regarding the future. If an immigrant intends to remain permanently in the United States and become an American citizen, he naturally begins at once, often indeed before he leaves Europe, to fit himself for the conditions of his new life, by learning the language of the country, studying its institutions, and later on by investing his savings in America and by planning for the future of his children in such a way that they may have advantages even better than his own. If, on the other hand, he intends his sojourn in this country to be short, a matter of a few months or a few years, naturally his whole outlook upon American institutions and American life is changed. He will wish to secure in America that which will be of chief use to him after his return to his home country, and not that which would ultimately serve him best here. The acquisition of the English language will be of little consequence unless it might secure a slight increase of wages, and the acquirement of a year or two would

scarcely suffice for any important change in this regard. Naturally, the chief aim of a person with this intention is to put money in his purse; to secure as much wealth as possible in this country, not for investment here but for investment in his home country, so that upon his return he may possess a better economic and social status. The question, then, of a permanent, as compared with a transient, residence in the United States becomes a factor of prime importance in determining the ease of assimilation of the various races of immigrants. In this respect an important distinction is to be made between the races of the new immigration and those of the old.

Our earlier immigration records did not take account of the aliens leaving United States ports, but beginning with 1907 such a record has been kept and the figures for the year 1908 are available. Inasmuch as in the fall of 1907 there was an industrial crisis followed by a period of depression, the return movement during the year 1908 was doubtless greatly stimulated, while on the other hand the immigration during the earlier part of 1907 was also very large. The European emigration, including the Syrians, into the United States in the year 1907 showed 22.7 per cent. of the old immigration and 77.3 per cent. of the new, whereas the difference between the immigrants of these two classes leaving the United States in the year 1908 was still more striking, those of the old immigration numbering only 8.9 per cent., while the new formed 91.1 per cent. These facts would seem to show that the races of peoples composing the older immigration are much more largely permanent residents, whereas a very large proportion of the newer immigrants are merely transient dwellers who come



here for a few years to acquire a competence and then return to their home country.

From the reports of the United States Commissioner-General of Immigration, which have, on the whole, been confirmed by the separate investigations of the Immigration Commission, it appears that taking a number of years in succession, 1908, 1909, 1910 (the later figures of 1911-1914 indicate the same tendencies), the number departing for every one hundred admitted varies greatly among the different races, and the distinction between the new immigration and the old in this regard was very striking. Not less than 56 per cent. and over of the North Italians and South Italians, Magyars, Turks, Croatians, Slovenians and Slovaks were returning to Europe in those years, whereas of the Hebrews and the Irish only 8 per cent. and 7 per cent., respectively, returned. If we classify the data regarding the aliens admitted and departed, so as to indicate separately the old and the new immigration, it is found that the number departing for every one hundred admitted of the old immigration was only 16, while of the new immigration it was more than twice as much, 38.

It appears then, clearly, that in this respect likewise the conditions which would lead to a ready assimilation with the Americans exist to a much greater degree among the races of the old than among those of the new immigration. It appears, too, that the inclination to return to the home country is much greater among the immigrants who have been in this country but a short time than among others, another fact which seems to justify the belief that the transient immigrant is becoming a



most important factor of the entire immigration question. In this regard, too, the difference between the old immigration and the new is quite noteworthy, altho not so great as in some other respects, 71.3 per cent. of the returning immigrants of the old immigration, of the years 1908 to 1910 inclusive, being of those immigrants who have been in this country five years or less, while 83 per cent. of the new immigration had been in this country during that brief time.

The distinction of the sexes also is noteworthy, emphasizing again the fact that it is among the newer immigrants that we find by far the largest proportion of those workers who come here without their families, with the intention of returning to Europe for their place of permanent abode. Among returning immigrants of the old immigration 63.6 per cent. were males, whereas of those of the new immigration not less than 85.4 per cent. were males. It seems that of all the immigrants coming into this country at least one-third returned to Europe, and in the years just preceding the war approximately two-thirds of all those who returned to Europe remained there. This migratory tendency, of the new immigration especially, has doubtless a most important influence upon the difficulty of assimilation of the immigrants into the great body of American citizens, and is a factor that should not be overlooked in estimating the influence of the different races upon our country.

Probably the large majority of the immigrants from Europe who later return thither leave in this country, as the result of their toil, an increase of wealth considerably greater than that which they take with them, as the result of their savings, for investment in their

home country. From the point of view solely of immediate economic gain our country has been profited by their coming. On the other hand, this profit is much greater in the case of a man of the same degree of productivity, provided he takes an interest in this country, invests his savings here, becomes identified with our institutions, and, expecting this to be the permanent home of himself and his children, plans his work and directs his hopes so as to bring about the best results for the future. In any attempt to make a distinction between the various races of immigrants or the various classes industrially, this factor of permanency should be considered a very important one. Naturally, aside from the question as to the physical or mental or moral qualities of the persons involved, their purpose modifies profoundly the results of their residence here.

#### ABILITY TO SPEAK ENGLISH

Naturally the ease with which people adapt themselves to American institutions will depend largely upon the readiness with which they master the English language and the likeness of their home institutions to ours. For these reasons the immigrants of the old immigration—especially, of course, those from Great Britain, Ireland, and the British colonies—have a decided advantage.

#### *The Need of a Detailed Study*

So important are all these characteristics, as well as some others, that detailed consideration must be given to them in order to see how far the different races have adapted themselves to American ways, and what further measures need to be taken. This is attempted in the subsequent discussion.

## IV

### SOCIAL PROBLEMS OF RECENT IMMIGRATION

#### *Difficulty of Special Studies*

Many persons who have spoken and written of late years in favor of restriction of immigration, have laid great stress upon the evils to society arising from immigration. They have claimed that disease, pauperism, crime and vice have been greatly increased through the incoming of the immigrants. Perhaps no other phase of the question has aroused so keen feeling, and yet perhaps on no other phase of the question has there been so little accurate information.

It is doubtful whether the increased number of convictions for crime are found because more crimes are committed, or because our courts and the police are more active. It is probable that we hear more of vice and immorality in these late days, not because they are on the increase, but because people's consciences have become more sensitive, and in consequence greater efforts are made to suppress them.

It is certain that the injurious effect of most contagious diseases has been very greatly lessened, and yet it is probable that we hear more regarding contagious diseases now than ever before because we have become more watchful.

The data regarding contagious diseases, pauperism, and crime, in connection with the immigrants, are extremely meager and unsatisfactory; but the Immigration Commission made the best use possible of

such data as exist, and it was able to institute a number of inquiries which, tho limited in extent, nevertheless have served to throw some light upon the relation of immigration to these various social problems. Altho it seems probable that the injurious social effects of immigration have been greatly exaggerated in the minds of many persons, nevertheless it would be practically impossible to exaggerate the social importance that might attach to immigration under certain conditions. History and observation afford numberless examples.

It is a generally accepted fact that, up to the time of the visitation of the Pacific Islands by diseased sailors from Europe in the early part of the last century, venereal diseases, as known in Europe and America, did not exist in those islands, and that their introduction by only a few sailors was largely responsible for the ravages of these terrible diseases, unchecked by any medical knowledge, that swept away in many instances a large proportion of the entire population.

The entrance of an evil-minded man into a village community, or one or two foul-minded boys into a school, is often enough to affect materially the entire tone of the school or community. It is important, therefore, that as careful consideration as possible be given to these questions that have been so emphasized, and that rigid measures be taken to check whatever evils may have arisen.

### *Legislation\**

In earlier days neither the Federal Government nor State governments had passed any laws to protect the

\* Cf. for details, reports of Immigration Commission, Vol. 39; also Chapter XVI.

United States against the immigration of undesirable persons of whatever kind. Even the energetic action of those promoting the so-called "Native American" or "Know Nothing" movements, from 1835 to 1860, resulted in no protective legislation. Indeed, these movements were largely based on opposition to the immigration of Catholics rather than to that of persons undesirable for other reasons. In 1836 the Secretary of State was requested to collect information respecting the immigration of foreign paupers and criminals. In 1838 the Committee on the Judiciary of the House of Representatives was instructed to consider the expediency of providing by law against the introduction into the United States of vagabonds and paupers deported from foreign countries. Moreover, a bill, presented on the recommendation of the Committee, proposed a fine of \$1,000, or imprisonment for from one to three years, for any master who took on board his vessel, with the intention of transporting to the United States, any alien passenger, who was an idiot, lunatic, one afflicted with any incurable disease, or one convicted of an infamous crime. The bill, however, was not considered. The early "Native American" movement had been local, confined to New York City at first, afterward spreading to Philadelphia, but in 1852 the secret oath-bound organization that took the name of the American Party, the members of which were popularly called the Know Nothings, came into national politics, and for a few years exerted not a little power, carrying nine State elections in 1855. Later, in something of a reaction against this "Know Nothing" movement, which finally proposed only the exclusion of foreign paupers and criminals, there was a definite effort made to encourage immigration.



In 1864, on the recommendation of President Lincoln, a bill encouraging immigration was passed. In 1866 a joint resolution condemned the action of Switzerland and other nations in pardoning persons convicted of murder and other infamous crimes on condition that they would emigrate to the United States, and in 1868 the encouraging act was repealed.

Some of the States had provided for the collection of money to support immigrants who had become public charges; but these laws were finally declared unconstitutional by the United States Supreme Court, and in 1882 the first Federal Immigration Law was approved. This forbade convicts, except political offenders, lunatics, idiots, and persons likely to become public charges, to land. During the following years there was considerable agitation for further restriction or regulation, which culminated in 1888 in the selection of the "Ford Committee" by the House of Representatives. In the testimony before the committee it was shown that sometimes immigrants coming by steamer to Quebec, within forty-eight hours of their arrival, applied for shelter in the alms houses of the State of New York, and like cases of gross abuse existed by the thousands.

No further legislation, however, was enacted until 1891, when a bill was passed which added to the excluded classes persons suffering from a loathsome or dangerous contagious disease, and polygamists, but from that time on there has been an earnest effort to protect the United States against such undesirable immigrants. In Chapter XVI a more detailed study of these acts will be given.



*Diseased Immigrants*

Our present law provides that in case of aliens who are debarred for physical or mental reasons and whose disability might have been detected by the transportation company through a competent medical examination at the time of embarkation, the transportation company shall pay the sum of \$200 and in addition a sum equal to that paid by such alien for his transportation from the initial point of departure indicated in his ticket to the port of arrival and such sum shall be paid to the alien on whose account it is assessed. In consequence of these and the preceding regulations, the transportation of diseased aliens has become so unprofitable that the steamship companies have provided, at the leading foreign ports, a medical inspection similar to that made in the United States.\*

## EFFICIENCY OF INSPECTION IN EUROPE

As a result of this inspection compelled by the rigid enforcement of our laws at our ports of entry, the number of persons debarred at American ports is relatively very small. In the fiscal year 1907, 1,285,349 aliens were admitted, while only 4,400 were debarred on account of physical and mental diseases. In 1914, as against 1,218,480 aliens who entered, 11,068 were debarred. The increase is due largely to the added efficiency of our medical service. The fact that a large proportion of the immigrants arriving in the United States come from countries where trachoma, favus and other contagious diseases are prevalent among the classes of the population from whom the immigrants come, shows how careful the steamship inspection is.

A still further proof is that the persons excluded on

\* Immigration Act, 1917, Sec. 9.

account of diseases from the ports of Italy, where the judgment of American medical officers is accepted as final, is slightly larger than those rejected from some other countries where the inspection is made solely by the physicians employed by the steamship companies.

On the whole, the medical inspection of immigrants at foreign ports, while not absolutely effective, seems to be reasonably satisfactory. A considerable time must elapse between embarkation at European ports and arrival in the United States. Moreover, doubtless, in spite of the best efforts that can be made, there will be occasionally an avoidance of inspection; but taking all circumstances into account, the present control of immigrants as regards contagious diseases seems to be quite satisfactory.

It has frequently been suggested that some system should be devised by which immigrants may be inspected before leaving their homes for a port of embarkation. Such an arrangement would, of course, prevent many hardships now suffered by the thousands that are annually turned back at foreign ports of embarkation; but this is a subject over which our government has no supervision, the governments of the home countries being the only ones which could take effective action.

The policy adopted by the United States, of holding steamship companies responsible for bringing to the United States those physically and mentally diseased, seems to be right, and to have been of increasing effectiveness in late years. Inasmuch, however, as the circumstances in different cases vary materially, it seems desirable that the penalty provided for evasion of the law either through carelessness or connivance

might also be varied so that under certain circumstances as heavy a fine as \$500 might be levied.

#### HOSPITAL INVESTIGATION

In order that a more careful test might be made of the physical conditions of the immigrants after their arrival in this country, the Immigration Commission had an accurate record\* kept of all charity patients entering the Bellevue and Allied Hospitals in New York City, during the seven months from August 1, 1908, to February 28, 1909, these hospitals being the ones that most frequently treat charity patients of the immigrant classes. Records of 23,758 cases were taken, of whom 52.3 per cent. were foreign born. When any race was represented by 200 or more patients, the results were tabulated, so that some conclusions might be reached regarding the liability to certain diseases of the different classes of immigrants of the various races and nationalities.

It is a rather striking fact that, so far as one can judge from these records kept, the races of the recent immigration, those from southern and eastern Europe, are not so subject to diseases that seem to be allied with moral weaknesses, as some of those of the older immigration races. For example, the largest percentage of diseases treated among Italians is 19.6 per cent. for traumatism, burns, etc., these apparently arising from the fact that the newly arrived Italian immigrant is likely to be employed in unskilled labor, where he meets with slight accidents. The Hebrews also suffer most from this cause, a percentage of 13.1 per cent.

The Irish, who are also largely unskilled workmen,

\*Reports of Immigration Commission, Vol. 1.

show only 11.7 per cent. of their cases coming from this cause, whereas 35.9 per cent. of the Irish patients treated were suffering from alcoholism, acute and chronic. Of the English 27.5 per cent., and of the German 12.8 per cent., were treated for alcoholism, and only 7.2 per cent. and 12.4 per cent. respectively, for traumatism, burns, etc. Of the Italians only 1.6 per cent. were treated for alcoholism and of the Hebrews only 0.9 of 1 per cent.

The Swedes with 1.5 per cent, Irish, Italians, Polish and Scotch each with .9 per cent., show a larger proportion treated for syphilis than the English, Germans, Hebrews or Magyars. The English with 2.1 per cent. and the Italians with 1.5 per cent. had a larger proportion treated for gonorrhea than any of the other races of which a detailed study was made.

Among the native-born negroes only 3.6 per cent. were treated for alcoholism.

### *The Mentally Defective*

It is much more difficult, in many instances, to detect the mentally than the physically defective. Often there is nothing to indicate to the medical inspector mental disease, unless the immigrant can be kept under observation for a considerable period of time, or unless the history of the case is known. Under the law, "All idiots, imbeciles, feeble-minded persons, epileptics, are excluded, insane persons, and persons who have been insane within five years previous; and persons who have had two or more attacks of insanity at any time previously." It is the custom invariably to hold for observation any patient who shows any evidence whatever of mental disease; but despite this care not a few cases are found of those who have developed insanity

within a comparatively short period after landing. In some instances this might have been anticipated if the history of the patient had been known, but otherwise there was no means of detection. The present law on this point seems to be satisfactory, and its enforcement generally good under the very difficult conditions; but it would be desirable to have a larger force of experts to examine, and also, if it were practicable, to provide some better means for securing the history of arriving immigrants.

The tables on page 51, taken from the Special Report of the United States Census, which some observations by the Immigration Commission in Bellevue and Allied Hospitals in New York and reports of the Bureau of Immigration tend to confirm, throw some light on the relative tendencies of certain races toward insanity, and show that certain aliens are more inclined toward insanity than are native-born Americans.

#### RACIAL OR NATIONAL TENDENCIES

The high ratio of insanity prevailing among foreign-born persons in the United States may be due, in a measure at least, to racial or national tendencies.

Data showing the number of insane and the ratio of insanity in the principal European countries and in Canada are afforded by the Special Report of the Census Bureau. These data, together with like data for the United States, obtained from the same source, are presented on page 51.

#### *Racial Tendencies and Disease\**

Michael M. Davis, Jr., in his book on "Immigrant

\* The facts regarding this section have been taken from the book on "Immigrant Health and the Community," by Michael M. Davis, Jr.



Health and the Community," gives some very interesting statistics regarding the tendencies of various races to particular diseases and physical fitness. These statistics are extremely significant and indicate that certain races are possibly not well adapted to American life. They also support the argument made by many students of immigration\* that more attention should be given to the problem of selection by race. He says that "probably the most far-reaching investigation which has compared the physical fitness of the native and foreign born is that made by the War Department in selecting drafted men for the army. The large numbers involved make the results reliable." To understand the statistics which are here cited it is necessary to know the definitions which the War Department gave to Groups A and D among the men examined.\*

Group A was composed of men who are vigorous and without any physical defect which might interfere with the full performance of military duties. Group D contained those found to have conditions which unfitted them for military service. This last group was made up in large part of those unfit also for most civilian occupations.

Later in the report† it is stated that:

For the purpose of comparing the physical qualifications of natives and aliens, a comparison was made of the rejections in local boards composed dominantly of natives and aliens, respectively. Some 85,000 examinations were assembled from local boards in dominant alien wards of the cities of New York, Philadelphia, Chicago, Cleveland, Milwaukee and Cincinnati, representing a registration of 300,000. Then some 100,000 examinations were similarly assembled from other than city boards in the States of Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky and Ohio, representing also a registration of 300,000. The results were as follows:

\* Second Report of the Provost Marshal General to the Secretary of War on the Operations of the Selective Service System to December 20, 1918, pp. 152-153.

† *Ibid.*, pp. 160-161.



PHYSICAL REJECTIONS IN ALIEN AND NATIVE COMMUNITIES  
COMPARED

Alien and Native Physical Rejections Compared	Number	Per Cent of Rejections
1. Total number of records of examinations compared in dominant alien and native communities.....	184,854	.....
2. Rejected (Group D).....	28,184	15.25
3. Total compared, alien communities.....	84,723	.....
4. Rejected (Group D).....	14,525	17.14
5. Total compared, native communities.....	100,131	.....
6. Rejected (Group D).....	13,659	13.64

It is interesting to note that, as might be expected, this comparison is greatly to the advantage of the native born Americans. In every 100,000 men the native born would yield 3,500 more (an additional regiment at war strength) for military service than would a like number of foreign born.

It is apparent that there is a substantial difference between the per cent. of rejections in native and alien communities.

An additional light on this subject is thrown by a report from local board for Division No. 129, New York City. This board, realizing a great opportunity, made careful anthropometric studies of about 600 registrants. A preliminary report said:\*

Time has been lacking for a final study of the observed data. However, the figures seem to indicate that the foreign born registrants were markedly less fit for service than the native born.

Since this report was written this local board has gone farther into the matter and summarized certain results which verify these preliminary conclusions:†

"While the following data are based on a relatively few cases (397), the differences are too great to be considered mere accidental differences. They are real mathematical differences.

\* Second Report of the Provost Marshal General to the Secretary of War on the Operations of the Selective Service System to December 20, 1918, pp. 160-161.

† Dr. Louis R. Sullivan, American Museum of Natural History, "Analysis of Data Furnished by Local Board 129, New York City." July 14, 1919. (Manuscript.)

**REPORT OF PHYSICAL EXAMINATIONS ON DRAFTED MEN IN  
LOCAL BOARD 129, NEW YORK CITY, 1919**

	Class A		Class B		Class C		Class D		Totals
	Physically Fit		Remedial Defects		Limited Service		Rejected		
	Num-ber	Per Cent	Num-ber	Per Cent	Num-ber	Per Cent	Num-ber	Per Cent	Num-ber
Foreign born.....	34	37.0	4	4.3	35	38.0	19	20.7	92
American born:									
Foreign parents.....	42	46.1	3	3.3	25	27.5	21	23.0	91
Mixed parents.....	43	64.2	2	3.0	16	23.9	6	9.0	67
American parents....	92	62.6	4	2.7	20	13.6	31	21.1	147
Total series.....	211	53.1	13	3.3	96	24.2	77	19.4	397

"In Class A, which included all men who are physically fit, we find a greatly increasing percentage of men falling in this class as we pass from foreign born, and American born of foreign parents, to American born of mixed and native parents. These two latter groups are well above the average for the total series, while the two former are considerably below this average.

"Class B is of little significance since it included only those with minor defects.

"Class C included all men with a defect serious enough to be an impediment in general military work, but not necessarily in some special vocation. Here the percentage decreased from the foreign born to the American born of American parentage.

"In Class D, which included all men with some defect serious enough to incapacitate them for all military service, and probably also most civilian vocations, we find small differences, yet these differences favor the Americans of mixed or American parentage."

These facts indicate the need of further study relative to the effect of immigration upon national physical fitness.

#### MORBIDITY OF SPECIAL RACES

In Mr. Davis' discussion of the morbidity of special races he uses original figures from the Henry Street Settlement, covering 17,380 cases largely among

Italians and Hebrews treated in New York City in 1916. The Italians, according to these figures, showed a heavy incidence of respiratory disease. "Altho they represent only one in every five people attended for any form of sickness, about two out of every five respiratory cases were Italians." A striking difference is found between Jews and Italians in this regard, the Italians having a percentage of 8.9, the Jews only 2.6. Among children under one year of age only 5.7 per cent. of Jewish children died, as compared with 17.7 per cent. of Italians.

Mr. Davis also states that this high morbidity of Italians is supported by other studies. One made in Framingham, Mass., discloses the fact that the Italians suffered five times as heavily from pneumonia and influenza as the rest of the population. An investigation among 1,400 school children in 1907 showed that the Italian child suffered seven times as heavily from low nutrition as American children. The great prevalence of rickets among Italian children is well known. The Irish, on the other hand, have a very high death rate from tuberculosis. In contrast, the Russians and the Poles have a very low death rate from this disease.

Doctor William H. Guilfooy, of the New York City Department of Health, states that "the death rate at all ages \* \* \* from pulmonary tuberculosis is noteworthy by reason of the excessively high rate among the Irish males. Out of every 100,000, 701 Irish died, as compared with 333 native males."

Mr. Davis quotes figures from a study of first admissions to hospitals for insane, made by the New York State Hospital Commission in 1912. Insanity, according to this report, is 2.9 per cent. as great among the foreign born as the native throughout the State.

The foreign born, which composed 30.4 per cent. of the population in 1918, contributed 36.4 per cent. of all admissions to State hospitals. This report also showed striking differences among various races of susceptibility to different types of insanity.

Alcoholism plays an outstanding part in the death rate of certain races, especially the Irish. This race, according to Mr. Davis, takes primary rank in deaths from other diseases, such as Bright's disease, those of the digestive systems and the circulatory and respiratory systems. On the other hand, the Irish have a very low death rate from acute infections.

The Russians, including the Jews, generally are at the bottom of the morbidity rate list. Altho living under congested conditions they have a death rate from tuberculosis about one-third less than that of the native born. Mr. Davis suggests that "exposure to urban conditions for many generations, and consequent elimination of stocks unable to resist the prevalent urban infections is a probable factor in this low rate among the Jews."

These fragmentary statistics show the need for detailed studies along these lines. Such statistics have a vital bearing on the desirability of certain races and their ability to meet American living conditions. Statistics of this character would play a very important part in any selective process as applied to different races.

Whether these differences are due to racial characteristics or whether they are due to the different living conditions in this country is a vital matter. Statistics which will substantiate one side or the other are of the utmost significance. Unfortunately statistics bearing on this subject and upon which scientific deductions may be formed are meager and often very inaccurate.

When a country in its nation building, however, uses in the process thirty to forty races as material, it is of the greatest importance to the country in question to know what material is satisfactory and what is not. It is reasonable to assume that out of so many races now coming into the United States, some will fail, some will fit in moderately well with the native stock, while still others will be peculiarly adapted to become a valuable part of the American racial composition.

Viscount Bryce, in his study of American history, in speaking of the effects of immigration puts the question in this way: "Here we are met by a question which has never arisen before, either on so great a scale, or under conditions which enabled it to be so carefully observed—a question needing examination by physiologists and anthropologists as well as by historians. There have been many cases of race intermixture, but in extremely few of these have we statistical records sufficient to furnish data for scientific conclusions. The problem may be stated as follows: When two or more races mix their blood what is the comparative importance of blood, *i.e.*, of heredity, on the one hand, and of environment on the other, in determining the quality of the race which arises from the mixture? \* \* \* To what extent then will these racial tendencies pass into and modify the American mass?"

Reliable statistics along these lines are also important from the viewpoint of directing health campaigns among different races.

### *Paupers*

Altho in the earlier days before strict regulation of immigration had been provided by law many poor



people came from Europe, their home countries paying the expenses of their shipment in order to rid themselves of the burden of their support, our present regulations excluding those who are liable to become a public charge have practically stopt the immigration of this undesirable class. The Immigration Commission, with the assistance of the Associated Charities in forty-three cities, including practically all the large immigrant centers excepting New York, reached the conclusion that only a very small percentage of the immigrants now arriving applied for relief.

In this statistical investigation,\* covering 31,374 cases actually receiving assistance and reporting cause, it was found that 28.7 per cent. had applied for assistance because of the death or disability of the breadwinner of the family; 18.9 per cent. on account of the death or disability of another member of the family; 59 per cent. from lack of employment or insufficient earnings; 18.7 per cent. on account of neglect or bad habits of the breadwinner; 6.2 per cent. on account of old age; and 10 per cent. from other causes.

It will be noted that because more than one reason was given in some cases, this total amounts to more than 100 per cent., but the relative proportions of the cases under the different classes is probably substantially accurate. If we attempt to discriminate among the different races, it appears that it is among the immigrants of the earlier period or those coming from Northern Europe that we find apparently the largest number of cases of neglect or bad habits of the breadwinner. For example, among the South Italians, only 8.7 per cent. give this cause, whereas the Irish give 20.9 per cent., the English 14 per cent., the German

\* Reports of Immigration Commission, Vol. 1.



NUMBER AND RATIO OF INSANE IN UNITED STATES AND IN  
FOREIGN COUNTRIES

[Compiled from United States Census, Special Report, "Insane and feeble-minded in hospitals and institutions, 1904," pp. 9 and 10.]

COUNTRY	Year	Insane in hospitals		Total insane	
		Number	No. per 100,000 of population	Number	No. per 100,000 of population
United States.....	1903	150,151	186.2	a 106,485	a 170.0
England and Wales.....	1903	113,964	340.1	.....	.....
Scotland.....	1903	16,658	363.7	.....	.....
Ireland.....	1903	22,138	490.9	.....	.....
Canada.....	1901	12,819	238.6	16,495	307.0
France.....	1904	69,190	177.5	.....	.....
Germany.....	1903	108,004	191.6	.....	.....
Italy.....	1899	34,802	109.2	.....	.....
Austria.....	1901	14,895	57.0	30,747	117.5
Hungary.....	1902	2,716	14.1	17,117	88.8
Netherlands.....	1903	8,958	167.5	.....	.....
Switzerland.....	1901	7,434	224.2	.....	.....
Norway.....	1902	1,833	80.5	5,397	238.4
Sweden.....	1903	5,083	97.3	8,093	154.9
Denmark.....	1901	3,438	140.3	4,197	171.3

a Figure for June 1, 1890.

FOREIGN-BORN WHITE INSANE ENUMERATED IN HOSPITALS IN  
CONTINENTAL UNITED STATES

December 31, 1903, compared with the total foreign-born population of continental United States in 1900, by country of birth; per cent. distribution.

[Compiled from United States Census, Special Report, "Insane and feeble-minded in hospitals and institutions, 1904"; pp. 23 and 24.]

COUNTRY OF BIRTH	Per cent. distribution of—	
	Foreign-born white insane enumerated in hospitals, Dec. 31, 1903.	Foreign-born population: 1900.
Ireland.....	29.0	15.6
Germany.....	26.9	25.8
England and Wales.....	7.0	9.0
Canada <sup>a</sup> .....	6.5	11.4
Scandinavia.....	11.5	10.3
Scotland.....	1.7	2.3
Italy.....	2.3	4.7
France.....	1.2	1.0
Hungary and Bohemia.....	2.2	2.9
Russia and Poland.....	4.4	7.8
Other countries.....	7.3	9.2
Total.....	100.0	100.0

a Includes Newfoundland.

15.7 per cent., the Norwegians 25.9 per cent. The Hebrews, again, as representatives of the later immigrants, give 12.6 per cent., but the Lithuanians, by exception, give 25.6 per cent.

In the case of those giving lack of employment as the cause, the highest percentage is found among the Syrians, 75.4 per cent.; the lowest among the French Canadians, 38.9 per cent. There do not seem to be striking differences in this regard among the other nationalities; among the South Italians 67.8 per cent., the Polish 65.9 per cent., the Irish 54.8 per cent., the English 63.3 per cent., the Germans 58.1 per cent.; the preponderance being slightly greater among the late arrivals than among the early.

On the other hand, if we note the length of time that those assisted have been in the United States, we find that 33.9 per cent. of those who have received aid have been here twenty years or over, whereas only 6 per cent. have been here two years; and if we take all who have been here under three years, it amounts to only 10.3 per cent. Apparently, therefore, the newly arrived immigrants do not soon apply for aid to any large extent. It should be noted, also, that this investigation was made during the six months of the winter of 1908-09, while the effects of the industrial depression of 1907-08 were still felt. These last facts emphasize strongly the effectiveness of our present immigration laws in excluding those likely to become a public charge, as compared with the lack of care in earlier years, when within forty-eight hours of landing large numbers applied for relief.

*Crime*

Probably no other question in connection with immigration has aroused greater interest than its relation to crime. Probably more hostility to the immigrant has been aroused by the assertion that their incoming has increased crime in this country than by any other fact; and yet it is impossible to produce satisfactory evidence that immigration has resulted in an increase of crime out of proportion to the increase in the adult population. Altho available statistical material is too small to permit the drawing of positive conclusions, such material as is available, if trustworthy, would seem to indicate that immigrants are rather less inclined toward criminality, on the whole, than are native Americans, altho these statistics do indicate that the children of immigrants commit crime more often than the children of natives.

Any special study of the relation of immigration to crime should take into consideration not only the number of convictions for crime but also the nature of the crimes committed and possibly the relative likelihood of the detection of crime in different localities or among different classes of the population.

## DIFFICULTY OF ADMINISTRATION OF LAW

Altho the immigration laws provide for the exclusion of persons who have been convicted of, or confess to, an infamous crime, there can be no doubt that many criminals have succeeded and still succeed in evading this law.

It is, of course, impossible for an immigration inspector to tell from the appearance of a man whether or not he has been a criminal. In many cases crimi-

nals, especially those who have committed certain classes of serious crimes, such as forgery or even burglary, may be well drest, intelligent persons, traveling in first cabin. Unless something is known of their previous history, if they do not declare that they have been convicted of crime, they will be admitted without question. Doubtless many aliens enter the United States contrary to the law after having been convicted of a crime, and having served out their sentence; or, having been convicted of crime by foreign courts during their absence from the place of trial, as is permitted in some countries, if they have escaped arrest and fled the country. Moreover, our laws do not exclude persons who have not been convicted of crime altho they may be looked upon as dangerous persons or probably criminals and on that account have been placed by their home courts under police surveillance.

The Immigration Commission,\* in order to make as careful a study as possible of this most important question within the means at its disposal, took into careful account the material collected by the United States Census on the extent of crime, going through carefully the latest report regarding prisoners and juvenile delinquents in institutions in 1904. In addition to this, use was made of the records of the County and Supreme Courts of New York State, from 1907 to 1908, of the New York City Magistrates Courts, 1901-1908, and of the New York Court of General Sessions, October 1, 1908 to June 30, 1909, the material in this last case having been especially collected by agents of the Commission.

Furthermore, the records of commitments to penal institutions in Massachusetts, October 1, 1908, and

\* Reports of Immigration Commission, Vol. 36.

September 30, 1909, and data relating to alien prisoners in the penal institutions throughout the United States, in 1908, were utilized, as well as the police records made in Chicago in the years 1905-1908.

Many of these figures, of course, are not comparable one with another, but by a careful study certain general conclusions may be reached.

#### CLASSES OF CRIME

The tables on pages 57 and 58, of the distribution of classes of crime, show that in all of the courts investigated, the proportion of natives committing gainful offenses is decidedly larger than that of foreigners, altho in offenses of personal violence and of those against public policy the foreigner predominates. It should be borne in mind, however, that in the case of offenses against public policy many are merely the violation of a city ordinance, such as peddling without a city license, and it may be that in certain of these cases the newly arrived immigrant was not aware that he was committing an offense. Even, however, if he did know that he was violating an ordinance, it could hardly be assumed that it was such a misdemeanor as would imply a serious criminal tendency.

When on the other hand we take up the offense of personal violence, we find that in the City Magistrate's Court of New York and in the County and Supreme Courts of the same State, the percentage of offenses of personal violence is very much higher among the Italians than among any other race or nationality. This seems a matter of special significance. For example, of the convictions of Italians in the County and Supreme Courts of New York State, 39.3 per cent. were for offenses of personal violence; of the convic-

tions of persons born in Austria-Hungary, only 18.6 per cent. were for offenses of that class; for those born in Ireland, only 16.5 per cent.; and for native-born citizens, 11.7 per cent. On the other hand, when in the same courts we find that in the relative frequency of gainful offenses, the United States leads with 77.8 per cent., and the Italians have the fewest offenses with 37.6 per cent., we see the relative inclinations of the different races brought out in a most striking way.

Among these gainful offenses, however, there seems to be a wide difference in kinds of crime. Of the convictions of persons born in the United States, 29.9 per cent. were for burglary. In extortion, the Italians lead with 3.05 per cent.; in forgery and fraud, the Canadian with 4.03 per cent.; in larceny and receiving stolen property, the Russian leads with 48.5, while in robbery, the Poles are preeminent with 4.2 per cent.

If a similar analysis is made of the relative frequency of offenses of personal violence, the Italians seem to show a peculiarly bad eminence, leading in homicide with 6.3 per cent. of all the convictions, while the nationality next to them is the Irish with only 2.2 per cent. In abduction, the Italians also lead with 2.03 per cent., England being second at only 0.62 per cent. In assault the Italians are first with 28.9 per cent., Austria-Hungary second at 15 per cent. In all of the offenses of personal violence the Italians lead, except in the case of rape, where the Germans and Italians are equal at 2.1 per cent., citizens of the United States following at 1.6 per cent. In the same court, the Italians lead in crimes against the public health and safety with 13.8 per cent., the Poles ranking second with 5.2 per cent. In the case of violation of excise



# DISTRIBUTION OF CLASSES OF CRIME

SOURCE	Number											
	Total		Gainful offenses		Offenses of per- sonal violence		Offenses against public policy		Offenses against chastity		Unclassified offenses	
	Native	Foreign	Native	Foreign	Native	Foreign	Native	Foreign	Native	Foreign	Native	Foreign
New York City mag- istrates' courts...	365,386	402,772	36,764	24,635	14,292	17,141	310,321	355,905	2,066	2,980	1,943	2,111
New York court of general sessions..	1,326	880	1,043	589	170	183	89	82	9	5	15	21
New York county and supreme courts...	7,286	3,879	5,665	2,345	855	873	509	485	135	72	122	104
Chicago police arrests	195,934	104,997	29,074	10,316	9,104	7,720	144,528	81,636	10,012	3,434	3,216	1,891
Mass. prisoners.....	15,219	13,101	2,861	1,119	657	783	11,493	10,597	405	360	293	242

## Per cent. of all offenses

SOURCE	Per cent. of all offenses											
	Total		Gainful offenses		Offenses of personal violence		Offenses against public policy		Offenses against chastity		Unclassified offenses	
	Native	Foreign	Native	Foreign	Native	Foreign	Native	Foreign	Native	Foreign	Native	Foreign
New York City magistrates' courts...	100.0	100.0	10.1	6.1	3.9	4.3	84.9	88.4	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.5
New York court of general sessions...	100.0	100.0	78.7	66.9	12.8	20.8	6.7	9.3	0.7	0.6	1.1	2.4
New York county and supreme courts...	100.0	100.0	77.8	60.5	11.7	22.5	7.0	12.5	1.9	1.9	1.7	2.7
Chicago police arrests	100.0	100.0	14.8	9.8	4.6	7.4	73.8	77.8	5.1	3.3	1.6	1.8
Mass. prisoners.....	100.0	100.0	15.5	8.5	4.3	6.0	75.5	80.9	2.7	2.7	1.9	1.8

**DISTRIBUTION OF CLASSES OF CRIME**  
*New York County and Supreme Courts, 1907-8*

COUNTRY OF BIRTH	Convictions: Number					
	Total	Gainful offenses	Offenses of personal violence	Offenses against public policy	Offenses against chastity	Unclassified offenses
United States .....	7,286	5,665	855	509	135	122
Austria-Hungary ...	419	280	78	31	10	20
Canada .....	124	85	16	14	1	8
England .....	161	115	13	17	11	5
Germany .....	514	360	67	54	13	20
Ireland .....	278	197	46	24	3	8
Italy .....	1,183	445	465	244	13	16
Poland .....	96	63	17	11	2	3
Russia .....	646	498	84	35	12	17
Total foreign a...	3,879	2,345	873	485	72	104
Grand total .....	11,165	8,010	1,728	994	207	226

COUNTRY OF BIRTH	Convictions: Per cent. distribution					
	Total	Gainful offenses	Offenses of personal violence	Offenses against public policy	Offenses against chastity	Unclassified offenses
United States .....	100.0	77.8	11.7	7.0	1.9	1.7
Austria-Hungary ...	100.0	66.8	18.6	7.4	2.4	4.8
Canada .....	100.0	68.5	12.9	11.3	0.8	6.5
England .....	100.0	71.4	8.1	10.6	6.8	3.1
Germany .....	100.0	70.0	13.0	10.5	2.5	3.9
Ireland .....	100.0	70.9	16.5	8.6	1.1	2.9
Italy .....	100.0	37.6	39.3	20.6	1.1	1.4
Poland .....	100.0	65.6	17.7	11.5	2.1	3.1
Russia .....	100.0	77.1	13.0	5.4	1.9	2.6
Total foreign a...	100.0	60.5	22.5	12.5	1.9	2.7
Grand total .....	100.0	71.7	15.5	8.9	1.9	2.0

a Includes "Other countries."

laws and similar offenses, the Canadian leads with 10.5 per cent., the English following with only 6.2 per cent.

It is perhaps sufficient to say here that on the whole, in spite of the inclination apparently shown by certain nationalities to commit certain classes of crime, it is impossible to show whether or not the totality of crime has been increased by immigration.

#### NEW MEASURES NEEDED

There can be no doubt regarding the inadequacy of our laws for the exclusion of criminals. Many criminals doubtless come as seamen, or as employees in some capacity on ships, and then secure entrance to the country by desertion, while, as already explained, many others escape because the inspecting officials can not detect them.

Unless an immigrant has a criminal record abroad, there seems no way of ridding the country of his presence if he becomes a criminal here. It seems advisable that our laws be so amended that an alien who becomes a criminal within a relatively short time, after his arrival, say from three to five years, should be deported after he has paid the penalty here. Presumably such a person has brought with him a tendency to commit crime.

Moreover, it would seem advisable for the United States to make arrangements with certain foreign countries that keep police records of all their citizens, so that all persons arriving from those countries might be required to produce a penal certificate showing a clear record. Those unable to present such a record should be excluded. Such an arrangement could not well be made with all countries, since, first, many

countries keep no such records, but also, second, because such an arrangement would probably be used by some countries as an additional means of oppressing political offenders or those suspected of revolutionary inclinations, however praiseworthy such inclinations might be from the American viewpoint.

The Immigration Commission, and, also, at about the same time, the Police Department of New York City, proved by experiment in some hundreds of cases that it is possible to secure in some foreign countries documentary evidence of the conviction of crime of immigrants who have been admitted through error. So far as is known, the Bureau of Immigration has never seriously attempted such work, tho it might well be a means of ridding the country of scores, even hundreds, of dangerous criminals. Moreover, if the Government were to keep abroad a confidential force to watch for criminal and immoral persons intending to enter this country, as it does provide such a force abroad to prevent smuggling of goods, good results could doubtless be obtained. A smuggled criminal or prostitute is far more injurious to the country than a smuggled diamond or silk coat. Why not take equal care regarding them?

#### *Birth-Rate Among Immigrants and Their Descendants*

So much has been said in late years about "race suicide," and so much of both the industrial and military strength of a country depends upon the natural increase of population through the birth-rate, that the relative fecundity of immigrant women as compared with that of both native-born of foreign parents and native-born of native parents is of great significance. Fortunately enough, excellent material was col-

lected by the Twelfth Census, altho not utilized by the Census Bureau, so that the Immigration Commission was able from the original data thus collected to reach accurate results of value. It was not considered practicable to make use of the material for all sections of the United States, but the State of Rhode Island, the city of Cleveland and forty-eight counties (largely rural) in the State of Ohio, the city of Minneapolis and twenty-one rural counties in Minnesota, were taken as typical of the different sections of the country and of urban and rural conditions. The detailed figures are of great interest.\*

#### WOMEN BEARING NO CHILDREN

Some general conclusions may be reached as follows: The percentage of women under forty-five years of age who had been married from ten to nineteen years, when classified by parentage and nativity shows that in all these regions selected for study 7.4 per cent. bore no children. Among the native whites of native parentage this fact held of 13.1 per cent., while among the whites of foreign parentage of only 5.7 per cent. Among the women of foreign parentage the percentage of women bearing no children was largest among the Scotch—8.9 per cent. of the first generation and 11.3 per cent. of the second generation.

The Polish women were the most fertile; of the women of the first generation only 2.6 per cent. bore no children, and of those of the second only 1.5 per cent. The Bohemians, Russians, and Norwegians show likewise relatively few women without children, while the English, French, Irish and English Canadian rank next to the Scotch in the large numbers unfruit-

\* Reports of Immigration Commission, Vol. 28.

ful. Speaking generally, also, it may be noted that the percentage of childless women is decidedly higher in the second generation of the white women of foreign parentage, altho this difference does not appear in so marked a degree in rural Minnesota as in the other areas. Generally speaking, the result would seem to indicate that the second generation, under rural conditions, is almost as likely to have children as the first. Under urban conditions this is not so likely to occur, as percentages indicate.

#### AVERAGE NUMBER OF CHILDREN

Considering the question from another viewpoint, that of the average number of children borne by women of the different races and nationalities in these different localities,—among the women of American stock, the average number of children in Cleveland, Minneapolis and Rhode Island, which are largely urban, is much the same, 2.4 and 2.5, while in the rural districts of both Ohio and Minnesota, the number of children is practically one more, 3.4.

Among the women of foreign stock, the difference between city and country is not so decidedly marked, but there is also decided variation among the different races. The average number of children borne by women under forty-five years of age, married from ten to nineteen years, was 2.7 for native white women of native parentage, and 4.4 for the native white women of foreign parentage. Among those races studied, the highest birth-rate was found among the Poles—6.2 children for the women of the first generation and 5.1 for those of the second. Next to these rank the French Canadians with 5.8 for the first generation and 4.9 for the second. Among the foreigners



the lowest birth rate was found among the English, with 3.7 for the first generation and 2.9 for the second. The Scotch ranked almost the same with 3.8 in the first generation and 2.9 in the second.

In practically all of these cases the number of children is larger in rural districts and smaller in the cities, altho in the case of Poles in Ohio 6.1 was the rate in Cleveland to 5.6 in rural Ohio. The exception does not appear significant.

RELATION OF YEARS OF MARRIED LIFE TO BIRTH-RATE,  
BY RACES

Still another indication of the same tendency of the native Americans and the second generation of immigrants to have fewer children is shown by the average number of years married for each child born to the women enumerated. As is to be expected from what has preceded, the smallest average number of years is found among the Poles with 2.3 for the first generation and 2.6 for the second. The largest number of years is found among the English with 3.9 of the first generation and 5 of the second generation. The English-Canadian, the Scotch and the French all rank high, while the Italians, French-Canadians and Norwegians rank low.

The general results seem to indicate that fecundity is much greater among women of foreign parentage than among the American women of native parentage and usually greater among the immigrants than among their descendants. Generally speaking, also, the fecundity is greater in the rural districts than in the cities. Taking all the totals together, the fecundity seems greatest in the first generation of Polish women, who bore in the years indicated one child every 2.3

years, while it is least in the second generation of English women, who bore on the average one child only every 5 years.

### *The Social Evil and the White Slave Traffic*

In many respects the most pitiful as well as the most revolting phase of the immigration question is that connected with the social evil or the white-slave traffic.

From the nature of the cases, it is, of course, impossible to get detailed statistics regarding the question.\* From the figures collected in an investigation of four months in the New York City Night Court, November 15, 1908, to March 15, 1909, it appears that 27.7 per cent. of the women arrested and convicted for keeping disorderly houses and solicitation, were foreign-born. Of these foreign-born cases in the Night Court, 581 in all, the Hebrews furnished the largest number, 225, the French next with 154, followed by the Germans with 69. In cases of exclusion and deportation the figures are materially different. A very large proportion of the girls who come to our cities to engage in this business are from the country districts and are American-born, altho very often they are immigrant girls who have entered factories of various types or have been engaged in such lines of activity that they are kept from the benefits of home influence.

### ECONOMIC CAUSES

In very many other cases, however, an important indirect cause of their downfall seems to be economic, altho dependent, largely, upon the other conditions

\* Reports of Immigration Commission, Vol. 37.

surrounding their home life. In the very crowded districts of the great cities the conditions of living are such that the normal instincts of modesty and propriety are, in many cases, almost inevitably deadened, with the result that yielding to temptation is much easier and more frequent than would otherwise be the case. Low wages are in themselves scarcely ever a direct cause.

The investigations of the Immigration Commission seem to show very clearly that the keepers of disorderly houses and those most actively engaged in the work of procuring inmates for these houses, either in this country or abroad, are either aliens or the children of aliens.

All such figures, however, are likely to be misleading. The opinions of the agents of the Commission, of the police, and of others familiar with the situation, lead one to the conclusion that the largest proportion of prostitutes entering the country are French; the Hebrews seem rather to have engaged in the life after entering the country. The Hebrews seem, on the other hand, to be more active as procurers and pimps in seducing the young girls here and persuading them to enter the life.

The report of the Commission of Immigration for 1914 gives the total number of nationalities debarred for prostitution as follows: English, 57; French, 32; German, 37; Hebrew, 27; Mexicans, 107. Those debarred as procurers: English, 37; French, 14; Germans, 31; Hebrews, 6; Mexicans, 65. These figures bring into evil prominence the Mexicans and English. Deportation after admission show like results.\*

\* Annual Report of the Commissioner-General of Immigration, p. 105.

## RACES

Of the women who are thus imported for immoral purposes, either willingly or against their will, certain nationalities seem to be especially prominent. The numbers of some of the different races convicted in the night court have been given on page 64; but these convictions are, of course, no certain measure of the numbers or proportions of those imported.

## MOTIVES

The motive of business profit has given the impulse which creates and upholds this traffic, whether carried on in this country or whether the women are imported. The persons actively engaged in enticing women into the business have only profit in view.

## METHODS OF ENTRY AND EXPLOITATION

In securing entry into this country contrary to law, these women are generally brought in as wives or relatives of the importers. It is usually very difficult, if not impossible, to detect these cases; and after admission it is likewise extremely difficult to secure such evidence as to justify deportation.

The system of exploitation on the part of the procurers and other persons engaged in the traffic is extremely brutal and revolting, resulting almost invariably in absolute poverty and dependence on the part of the victim and usually within a comparatively short time in disease and an early death.

*Results of Traffic*

It is, of course, impossible to discuss in detail the evil results of this traffic in immigrants. Suffice it

to say that it has materially heightened the gross evils of prostitution. Unnatural practises are brought largely from continental Europe; the fiendish work of the procurers and pimps is largely done by aliens or immigrants; diseases are spread more widely among guilty and innocent; even the ancient vice of the use of men and boys for immoral purposes is coming from abroad.

Fortunately, the investigation of the Commission aroused the public to action. Their report has been followed by others made by private Commissions, especially in Chicago, Minneapolis and New York. The governments and courts seem now to be doing really effective work.

The war did much to arouse and to educate public opinion along these lines. The Federal Government as part of its war program developed a very effective organization to deal with this problem in order to prevent social diseases among the four million men called to the colors. Remarkable work was done in eradicating the most vicious phases of prostitution and a vast amount of educational work among both men and women was carried on. Since the war this has been continued by the Public Health Service of the Government. To maintain such an advance will be a most difficult matter. Immigration is one of the many important factors affecting such a situation.

#### LEGISLATION AND ADMINISTRATION

Under the recommendation of the Commission new laws have been passed by Congress, and in a number of our States much more stringent laws have been passed since the report of the Immigration Commission, so that at the present time, with a reasonable degree

of effort on the part of well-meaning citizens and reasonable diligence on the part of the police officials and of the courts, the worst evils of the traffic may be, and in many instances have already been, decidedly checked and the worst criminals have in many instances been convicted. The remedy in this, as in most such matters, is to maintain a sufficient degree of intelligent knowledge on the part of the thoughtful normal citizen, and a willingness to deal with such a revolting subject with frankness, intelligence, conservatism and firmness, unmixed with fanaticism and prejudice.

### *Importance Attached to the Social Effects of Immigration*

In most of the discussions on immigration that have appeared during the last few years, whether the immigrant came from Europe or from Asia, great importance has been attached to the social effects of immigration arising from the personal qualities of the immigrants. Many have feared that the physical standards of the population of the United States would be lowered by the incoming of diseased persons; that the arrival of immigrants and paupers would prove not merely a financial burden but also a menace to the morals of the community; while the late discussions over the white slave traffic and other forms of vice have served still more strongly to accentuate this belief in the social evils arising from immigration.

The late investigations of the Immigration Commission show that, vital as the social effects are, relatively speaking, undue significance has been attached during the past few years to these social effects as a motive for legislation. While there are still many im-



provements to be made in our immigration laws and in their administration, nevertheless at the present time there is no serious danger to be apprehended immediately from the social defects of the immigrants, as has already been shown in this chapter. The number of persons afflicted with contagious diseases or insanity, or the number of paupers or criminals arriving, taking them as individuals, is very large, but taken as a percentage of the entire number coming is so small that too much heed need not be paid to it. Of course, this does not mean that we ought not to make every effort possible to lessen still further these evils. Every effort possible should be made, and special emphasis should be placed upon caring for the immigrants after their arrival, in order to bring them as soon as possible into harmony with our best institutions. But these evils should not blind our eyes to those of more far-reaching import.

The chief danger of immigration lies, not in this direction, but in the field of industry. When immigrants who are unskilled laborers arrive in so large numbers that the tendency is for them to lower the average rate of wages and the standard of living among the wage-earners, the danger is one much more far-reaching, and one to which our statesmen should give earnest attention. This includes indirectly often social effects as well. A number of later chapters will serve to show how imminent this industrial danger is, in what form it appears, and the way in which it should be met.

This, rather than the immediate social evils, is the most difficult phase of the immigration problem, and at the moment it is the most important phase. It is this that calls for prompt legislation.

## V

### MANUFACTURING AND MINING COMMUNITIES

#### *The Extent to Which Immigrant Colonies Exist*

The wide-spread existence of immigrant industrial communities or colonies in the United States at the present time may be realized, when it is stated that in the territory east of the Mississippi and north of the Ohio and Potomac Rivers there is no town or city of industrial importance which does not have its immigrant colony or section composed of Slavs, Magyars, North and South Italians, or members of other races of recent immigration from southern and eastern Europe. In the South and Southwest, because of the large areas devoted almost exclusively to agriculture, the immigrant community is less frequently met with than in the Middle West or East. In the bituminous coal mining territories of West Virginia, Virginia, Alabama, Arkansas, and Oklahoma, immigrant colonies in large numbers have been developed in the same way as those in the coal mining regions of Pennsylvania. Eastern Europeans have also attached themselves to the iron and steel producing communities of the Birmingham District in Alabama; and a large Italian colony, as is well known, exists in New Orleans, a considerable number of whose members are employed in the cotton-mills of the city and in the manufacture of cigars and cigarettes.

South Italians, Cubans and Spaniards have entered the cigar manufacturing establishments of Tampa and

Key West, Florida, and have built up colonies in these cities. Outside of New Orleans, however, no recent immigrants in the South are cotton-mill operatives. Southern mill owners have frequently tried to introduce southern and eastern, as well as northern European and British immigrants into their operating forces, but all attempts have resulted in failure, because of the refusal of the present cotton-mill workers, recruited from isolated farm and mountain sections of the southern states, to work alongside recent immigrants. This same intense race prejudice on the part of southern wage-earners of native birth has rendered impossible the extensive employment of southern and eastern Europeans in other branches of manufacturing in the South, and has consequently prevented the development of immigrant industrial colonies, except in the instances already mentioned and in the case of a number of agricultural communities, principally located in the Mississippi Valley.

### *Types of Immigrant Communities*

Whether located in the South or elsewhere, however, immigrant communities, which have come into existence because of the recent industrial expansion and the resultant influx of wage-earners from southern and eastern Europe, are of two general types.

The first is a community which by a gradual process of social accretion has affixt itself to the original population of an industrial town or city, which had already been established before the arrival of the recent immigrants. Foreign communities of this character are as numerous as the older industrial towns and centers of the country. The textile manufacturing centers of New England and the Middle States, such

as Fall River, Lowell, and New Bedford, Massachusetts; Manchester, New Hampshire; Providence, Rhode Island; and Paterson, New Jersey; cities in which other industries are located, such as paper manufacturing in Holyoke and boot and shoe factories in Haverhill and Lynn, Massachusetts; hardware, cutlery and jewelry, located in New Britain and Meriden, Connecticut; or leather finishing and currying, as in Wilmington, Delaware; clothing manufacturing, as in Rochester; collars and cuffs in Troy; hosiery and knit goods in Cohoes and Utica, New York; oil-refining in Bayonne, New Jersey; or cities engaged in diversified manufacturing, as Passaic and Newark, New Jersey,—all these have colonies or sections populated by recent immigrants.

The same condition of affairs is found in the iron and steel, glass, and other older manufacturing cities and towns of New York, Pennsylvania and the Middle West. As representative types of this class in connection with the manufacture of glass, Tarentum, Pennsylvania; Morgantown, West Virginia; Steubenville and Rossford, Ohio, may be mentioned; and as typical iron and steel localities, Steelton and Johnstown, Pennsylvania; Youngstown, Ohio; and South Chicago and DeKalb, Illinois. Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, or the Pittsburgh District, is practically made up of industrial towns or cities engaged in the manufacture of iron and steel, glass, and allied products, each of which has an immigrant colony or section composed of households of wage-earners of recent immigration.

As representative of a community of this class, the developments which have taken place in Johnstown, Pennsylvania, may be described. The first iron furnace was established in Johnstown in 1842. Expan-

sion in the local iron and steel industries developed the city and increased its population. Welsh, Irish, Germans and English were exclusively employed in the local industries from their establishment until 1880. During the past thirty years, however, the labor forces have been recruited from southern and eastern Europe. Slovaks, Poles, Magyars, Croatians, Servians, North and South Italians, Syrians and Bulgarians have in constantly increasing numbers found employment in the local iron and steel mills. As a result, about 60 per cent. of the population of Johnstown in 1910 was of foreign birth, and was and still is largely representative of races of recent arrival in this country. The native Americans and Welsh occupy two wards in the city. In addition, there are three distinct foreign colonies or sections. One is made up almost exclusively of South Italians, another of Slovaks and Croatians, and the third, the most important, contains representatives of all races of recent immigration.

The second general type of immigrant community has come into existence within recent years because of the development of some natural resources, such as coal, iron ore, or copper, or by reason of the extension of the principal manufacturing industries of the country. These communities usually cluster around mines or industrial plants, and their distinguishing feature is that a majority of their inhabitants are of foreign birth and recent immigration. This type of immigrant community is common in the bituminous and anthracite coal mining regions of Pennsylvania and in the coal producing areas of Virginia, West Virginia, Alabama, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Kansas and Oklahoma. In the Mesaba and Vermilion iron ore



ranges of Minnesota, as well as the iron ore and copper mining districts of Michigan, many such communities are also found. The usual mining community of this character consists of a small town or urban center in the vicinity of which mining operations are conducted at a number of points. These outlying mining locations are generally connected with the urban center by steam or electric railroads. The town of Windber in western Pennsylvania, by way of illustration, has a population of about 9,500 persons, and is the center of twelve mining camps. It was founded in 1897 by the opening of bituminous coal mines, for which purpose 1,600 experienced Englishmen and 400 native Americans were brought into the locality. With the opening of the new mines southern and eastern Europeans were attracted to the community, and at the present time eighteen races of recent immigration are numbered among its mine workers. The town of Windber proper has a section occupied by native Americans and three foreign colonies. The outlying mining villages consist of company houses in which recent immigrants live almost exclusively. The southern and eastern Europeans have their churches, banks, steamship agencies and business establishments in the town of Windber itself, to which they go to transact their affairs and to seek amusement. Food and other articles are principally purchased in the company stores of the mining villages.

Altho not so numerous, communities of this type are not infrequently established in connection with the leading industries, such as the manufacture of iron and steel, glass, cotton and woollen goods. Gary, Indiana, is an industrial community largely made up



of recent immigrants, which has been brought into existence because of the erection of a large steel plant within the past few years. Whiting, Indiana, is likewise a small city, recently established in connection with the oil refining industry; its population is composed principally of southern and eastern European immigrants.

Charleroi, Kensington, Tarentum, and Arnold, in western Pennsylvania, and Crystal City near St. Louis, Missouri, furnish examples of glass manufacturing communities of this description. Charleroi has at present a population of about 11,500, composed chiefly of French and French-Belgians, with an admixture of Poles, Slovaks, North and South Italians, and other races from the South and East of Europe. This community was established about 1890, when its first glass factory was erected, and has grown in size and importance as the glass industry within its borders has been extended.

Another illustration is the recently established iron and steel manufacturing community at Granite City and Madison, Illinois, which under normal working conditions has the distinction of being the largest Bulgarian colony in the United States. These two cities immediately join each other, and for practical purposes are one industrial community, the distinction between them being one of legal rather than industrial organization. In 1892 its site was an unbroken stretch of cornfields. During the past seven years it has had an extraordinary expansion in business and population, due to the extension of its industrial activities. The original wage-earners were English, Irish, Germans, Welsh and Poles. By 1900 the demand for unskilled labor, because

of the erection of new steel foundries and a car-building plant, could no longer be supplied by English-speaking people. Consequently, in that year, Slovaks from St. Louis were employed by the local industries. In 1902 came the Magyars, followed by a few Croatians. Mixed groups of Rumanians, Greeks and Servians followed. In the years 1904 and 1905 began the swarming of the Bulgarians to the community, and by the autumn of the latter year fully 1,500 had arrived. Two years later Bulgarian immigration reached its high-water mark with 8,000 of this race. In addition to the Bulgarians there are about 4,000 recent immigrants—Armenians, Servians, Lithuanians, Slovaks, Magyars and Poles being the principal races represented. The total population of the community consists under normal industrial conditions of a little above 20,000. The Bulgarians and other foreign races have built up, at a short distance from the American section of the two cities, practically an exclusively immigrant town which has come to be called in popular parlance "Hungary Hollow." Here Bulgarians, Servians, Rumanians and a few Magyars and Armenians live together entirely apart from any American influence.

### *Segregation of the Immigrant Population*

Between the immigrant colonies which have affixed themselves to industrial cities, such as the New England textile manufacturing cities or the iron and steel manufacturing localities of Pennsylvania, and the older native born portion of the towns or cities, there is little contact or association beyond that rendered necessary by business or working relations. Immigrant workmen and their households not only live in sec-

tions or colonies according to race, but, as has already been stated, attend and support their own churches, maintain their own business institutions and places of recreation, and have their own fraternal and beneficial organizations. Even in the mines and manufacturing plants, there is a sharp line of division in the occupations or the departments in which recent immigrants and persons of native birth are engaged, and in the case of unskilled labor the immigrant workmen are, as a rule, brought together in gangs composed of one race or closely related races.

In those industrial localities which are strongly unionized, the affiliation of immigrant workmen with native Americans is small. A considerable proportion of the children of foreign-born parents are also segregated in the parochial schools. Women of recent immigrant races, beyond the small degree of contact which they obtain in factories or as domestic servants, practically live entirely removed from Americanizing influences. As a consequence of this general isolation of immigrant colonies, the tendencies toward assimilation exhibited by the recent immigrant population are slight, and the maintenance of old customs and standards leads to congestion and unsanitary housing and living conditions.

The native-born element in the population of industrial communities of the type under discussion is in most cases ignorant of conditions which prevail in immigrant sections; but even when acquainted with them, natives are usually indifferent so long as they do not become too pronounced a menace to the public health and welfare. Under normal conditions there is no antipathy to the immigrant population, beyond the feeling uniformly met with in all sections, that a

certain stigma or reproach attaches to working with recent arrivals or in the same occupations. This aversion of the native American, which is psychological in its nature and arises from race prejudice or ignorance, is nevertheless one of the most effective forces in racial segregation and displacement.

The immigrant industrial communities which have recently come into existence through industrial development are almost entirely composed of foreign-born elements. They are alien colonies established on American soil, often composed of a large number of races, living according to their own standards, largely under their own systems of control, and practically isolated from all direct contact with American life and institutions. The Americanization of such communities, as compared with the immigrant colonies of old-established industrial towns and cities, must necessarily be slow. It is also to be expected that before these communities are assimilated they will have a pronounced effect upon American life, for the reason that the slowness of the process will result in the establishment, perhaps in a modified form, of many Old World standards and institutions.

### *The Significance of Immigrant Communities*

It can hardly be doubted that the low standard of living, the illiteracy, the absence of industrial training, and the tractability and lack of aggressiveness of the southern and eastern Europeans in our industrial communities, constitute a menace to the native Americans and wage-earners from Great Britain and northern Europe. As regards the recent immigrants themselves, their general, as well as their industrial, progress and assimilation are retarded by segregation in

colonies and communities where they have little contact with American life and small opportunity to acquire the English language. The sudden transplanting of such an agricultural class of the old world to the conditions and environments of American industrial communities renders the recent immigrant liable to serious physical and moral deterioration.

On the other hand, the existence of colonies of immigrants with low standards of living, and ignorant of proper measures for securing health and sanitation, constitutes a serious danger to the native-born portion of our industrial communities. The possible political and social manipulation of the recent immigrant population by unscrupulous leaders is also not without serious import in its bearing upon American institutions.

Probably the most significant feature of the entire situation, previous to the war, was the almost complete ignorance and indifference of the native American population to the recent immigrant colonies and their condition. This attitude extended even to the native churches, and very few agencies had been established for the Americanization and assimilation of southern and eastern European wage-earners.

During the war and since its close more and more attention has been given to the subject of Americanization. Indifference has given way to an aroused interest in the need and value of a united nation. State after State through their departments of education have developed evening school work designed to meet the educational needs of immigrants. Massachusetts has pointed the way in state legislation for immigrant education. Responsibility in Massachusetts for providing facilities for the education of



the adult immigrant is definitely placed upon local boards of education, but the State reimburses local committees for half the expense incurred. The administration of the Massachusetts Act is assigned to the division of University Extension under the State Department of Education. Emphasis is placed on local initiative and leadership, but the direction provided by the State Department of Education makes for a steady and constructive development of this important adult work in Massachusetts. New York State has also organized a State program of immigrant education under the University Extension Department of the State Department of Education. This program unfortunately has been greatly curtailed as the result of the economy program initiated by the State. Under the new provisions New York is following the example of Massachusetts and now pays half the salary of local teachers engaged in this work if they are properly trained and qualified. Many States now compel illiterates and non-English speaking adults to attend school. Still others give State support for immigrant education. A number of States have appointed directors of immigrant education whose task it is to stimulate these activities for the training of the immigrant.

Chambers of Commerce in many cities—Akron, Dayton and Detroit are very good examples—have developed strong and effective programs of Americanization.

Local school boards, K. of C.'s, Y. M. C. A.'s, Y. W. C. A.'s, and many other public and private organizations are now centering their attention upon the task of uniting the native and the foreign born in a closer fellowship. If one conceives of American-



ization as a process of social forces, and social contacts, and the development of a better understanding, not only is there a great field open for educational, social and religious work among immigrants, but vast possibilities are offered for patriotic service in improving these serious conditions which confront this self-governing republic. Racial differences, misunderstandings, ignorance cannot be allowed to exist in a democracy without causing friction and inefficient government. Altho at times the Americanization movement has developed along the path of repression—and it must be remembered that in many cases repressive measures are necessary in curbing revolutionary and anti-social movements—it is only as the immigrant is brought into contact with the better aspects of American life, only as he can really take an intelligent part in American Government, that lasting progress can be made. There is vast room for the development of work which will bring about this result and thus slowly but surely do away with one of the greatest difficulties in a country which has accepted so many diverse races as the United States.

## VI

### RECENT IMMIGRANTS IN AGRICULTURE

#### THE RETURNS OF THE THIRTEENTH CENSUS

According to the Census of 1910, the total number of white farm operators in the United States was 6,361,502.\* Of this number, 75 per cent. were found to be native Americans, and only 10.5 per cent. were foreigners. Of the native white farmers, two-thirds were independent farmers and slightly less than one-third were tenants. More than four-fifths of the immigrants, or 81.4 per cent., were owners of the farms they cultivated, and only 17.6 per cent., or less than one-fifth, were tenants. Of the foreign-born white farmers, the distribution according to country of birth in 1910 was as follows:

Austria .....	33,336
Hungary .....	3,827
England .....	39,728
Ireland .....	33,480
Scotland .....	10,220
Wales .....	4,110
France .....	5,832
Germany .....	221,800
Holland .....	13,790
Italy .....	10,614
Russia .....	25,788
Poland .....	7,228
Denmark .....	28,375
Norway .....	59,742
Sweden .....	67,453
Switzerland .....	14,333
Canada .....	61,878
Total .....	669,556*

\* The total includes representatives of races from small foreign countries, the figures for which are separately given.

As is apparent, from the preceding statement, the countries which have contributed the largest number of farm operators to the United States are Germany, Sweden, Canada, Norway, England, Ireland, Austria, Denmark, and Russia.

### *The Older Immigration from Northern and Western Europe*

In considering the status of immigrants in agriculture, it is necessary, however, as in other aspects of the immigration problem, to divide them into two classes: the older immigrant race groups and the more recent. Altho the history of the immigrant farmer in the United States is very long, it is more important at present to study the recent immigrants from southern and eastern Europe, principally because they have been a comparatively short time on the land and their success in farming has not been demonstrated. They come from races who do not usually become farmers in the United States, but it is probable that the future agricultural immigrants will come from these same southeast European races. On the other hand, there are the English-speaking races, nearly all of whom are early immigrants. They are scattered all through the country and are thoroughly Americanized. The other north European races of older immigration have been readily assimilated also and are prosperous in every form of agriculture.

Of the older immigrants the Germans are the most important in regard to numbers. The German male bread-winners on farms in 1910 comprized about one-third of all foreign males on farms. The second generation also shows a decided inclination to remain in

agriculture. The German colonies in Texas, which were established before 1850, have long been considered as prosperous as any in the State.

The Norwegians have a large proportion of their male bread-winners in agriculture, a higher percentage than any other race, 57.8 per cent., living in rural communities. From the first they have preferred agriculture to industrial work and have carried on a diversified agriculture, depending on economic and natural conditions. Some 97 per cent. of the Norwegians in agriculture are settled in the North Central States and the State of Washington. They took up unbroken, forested valleys or prairie land in Minnesota and the Dakotas.

The Swedes and Danes are as a rule in the same States as the Norwegians. The Swedes go more into industry than do the Norwegians. All of the Scandinavian races have proved excellent pioneers.

Of the males of Swiss parentage in 1910, 39.3 per cent. were on the land. The majority of Swiss farmers are owners of land, many of them engaged in dairying and stock raising, and have large settlements in Ohio, Wisconsin, and California, the most notable of which probably is in Green County, Wisconsin.

There are no satisfactory statistics on the Russian settlers in the region between the Great Lakes and the Rocky Mountains and in Western Canada. There are increasing numbers of these peasants engaged in grain farming. They settle in compact groups and are fairly successful and prosperous.

### *The Recent Agricultural Immigrants from Southern and Eastern Europe*

The Immigration Commission investigated nearly every important settlement of certain selected immigrant races in States east of the Mississippi River, and made a general survey of conditions in Texas, Arkansas and Southern Missouri. The study included North and South Italians, Hebrews, Poles, Slovaks, Bohemians and other Slavs, and Portuguese, with a few colonies of German-Swiss and Belgians, as well as Japanese in the East and West. The Commission's purpose in its study was to ascertain the racial characteristics and the economic, social and political status of the recent agricultural immigrant. In studying the communities, approximations as to number were made from town records, church registers, published estimates, censuses made by interested persons and canvasses by the Commission's agents. They studied by communities, as the colonies or race groups are generally homogeneous, instead of by agricultural industries. It was found best to separate the various racial groups of immigrants in agriculture into two distinct classes: first, those in settlements and communities who live permanently on country farms, and second, seasonal farm laborers who make their homes permanently in cities but migrate to the country in gangs to supply the demand for seasonal labor.

#### *Italians in Agriculture*

The Italians are probably the most important race of recent immigrants in agriculture. Since 1900 a very large percentage of all immigrants to this coun-

try have been of this race. In spite of the fact that nearly two-thirds of the South Italians and one-fourth of the North Italians were farmers abroad, only a very small proportion go on farms in this country. There are several reasons for this. In the first place the Italian arriving in this country is in most cases poor and has neither capital nor sufficient funds to travel. He has no way to learn of opportunities in agriculture, and as he must begin earning wages immediately, he takes the industrial work that is at hand in the cities. Italians like to live in populous places, such as they are accustomed to in their own country, and the comparative isolation of rural life does not appeal to them. For this reason they are not good pioneers but are successful as small farmers and truckers where they can live in close companionship with their countrymen.

Climate is of less importance in determining the success of a colony than might be expected. There are groups of South Italians scattered from North Wisconsin to Louisiana and they are successful farmers in New Jersey and in Texas as well. The largest and oldest colonies in the East are in New Jersey at Vineland and Hammonton. In New York the settlements are mostly on the Erie Canal line from Madison to Orleans Counties. There are a good many Italian truckers and market-gardeners in New England.

Two Wisconsin colonies at Genoa and at Cumberland aggregate about two hundred families. The former is an old settlement, but Cumberland is recent, composed largely of railroad laborers. Their supplementary earnings from industrial labor go to pay for the land.

The Italians, it is true, have brought no new methods into agriculture, but in practically every case in



the North they have improved the land. They are adepts at hand labor in farming and are most patient and industrious at hard, monotonous work. In some cases, they have rendered productive land that had been considered worthless by native farmers. In the North, ownership by North Italians of their farms is general. Most of them, both North and South Italians, have settled on uncleared land, purchased on an instalment basis, immediately after their arrival in the vicinity. Then they have worked unceasingly to pay for the land and make it profitable. Once owners of land, they take an interest in taxation, roads, suffrage, and schools and soon advance to wider economic interests.

The effect of rural life on the Italians, South Italians especially, has, in general, been good. Where they mingle with equal numbers of American farmers, assimilation has been rapid, but where they are isolated in large groups, it has been slow. Their progress has been small as compared with the northern Europeans in the West, but great as contrasted with that of some other races, as the rural Poles. The second generation is inclined to remain on the soil. At Vineland, New Jersey, there are a number of efficient second generation farmers.

### *Italians in the Southern States*

Most of the Italian immigration to the Southern States has been recent—during the past twenty years. It is also relatively numerically unimportant. There are farming communities in Alabama, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Arkansas. At Bryan, Texas, is the largest agricultural

colony in the South, numbering at least 1,700 persons. Sunnyside, Arkansas, which is a parent colony for several others, was founded in 1895, and is the largest settlement in the "black belt." Owing to the wide range of settlements in the South, the variety of products raised by Italian farmers is great. They are influenced by environment and the methods of their neighbors. The North Italian settlers in North Carolina carry on a diversified agriculture. In Louisiana and on the coastal plain of Alabama, the South Italians have truck farms and also raise fruits. In the Delta they raise cotton and in the Ozarks the Italians are successful peach and apple growers.

At Sunnyside, the immigrants generally rent farms, while at Knobview and Tontitown, Arkansas, it is their ambition to be independent land-owners. As in other parts of the country, the Italians in the South have small farms, requiring little capital and little outlay for machinery. There are no extensive rice or sugar growers among them.

The large percentage of Sicilians and South Italians in the South is notable. Probably more than 80 per cent. of the rural Italians in Louisiana are Sicilians and the large number of Italians at Bryan, Texas, are also Sicilians. This may be a reason for the larger proportion of Italian agricultural laborers in the South, and for the slower rate of Americanization in some places.

One striking economic feature is specialization rather than general farming. This is evinced in the strawberry culture at Independence, Louisiana. Each family in the community raises the same crop as a rule, a condition which results in cooperation instead of competition. In Independence the Italian growers

unite to buy fertilizer and boxes for their berries and to market them.

The cotton planters of the Delta, however, hold Italian farmers in high regard. Immigration to the South has been stimulated by cotton and sugar planters. They have been dissatisfied with negro labor and, alarmed at the scarcity of all kinds of workmen, have been anxious to secure good farm workers. In some cases, plantation owners have advanced passage money from Europe for immigrants. The total immigration induced in this way is not significant except as it has formed beginnings of colonies to which later immigrants went. For example, a few years ago, Sunnyside offered land under conditions to some 100 families from North Italy. In some places colonies started from the purchase of a few acres by farm laborers. Some of the strawberry growers of Tangipahoa Parish, Louisiana, were originally berry-pickers from New Orleans.

The Italians, also, are excellent laborers on sugar plantations. There has been a marked increase in the immigration of Sicilians into the cane region, where they come from New Orleans. This city in 1910 had a larger proportion of Italians than any other city of the United States. Tho the Italian excels the negro, there is no immediate prospect of his forcing out the negro laborer.

The inclination of Italians to congregate by race groups tends to perpetuate racial customs and characteristics and thus retard assimilation. The North Italians, however, show more inclination to fuse with the older white population than the South Italians do. The former also evince a keener desire to mingle with the Americans, to learn English, and to get educational

facilities for their children. In some places there is a prejudice against foreigners, and the natives in some instances move out to give place to the foreigners.

In respect to citizenship, the apathetic environment and inadequate schools in some parts of the South place the Italians at a disadvantage. Where their interest has been stimulated and the advantages of citizenship pointed out, they are not slow to take out naturalization papers. Once citizens, they take great interest in local questions.

The Italian soon accumulates money and as quickly as possible becomes a tenant or an owner. He is not at all wasteful and, unlike the negro farmer in the South, he makes his farm supply his table. He is not satisfied to work for wages, and the Italian wage-earner, where opportunities for economic advancement are favorable, will probably not outlast the first generation. In thrift and progress the Italians equal any other race in the South and they will probably become permanent farm settlers.

### *Italians in New York State*

In New York State the Immigration Commission investigated approximately 4,425 Italians, dependent entirely or in part on agriculture for their livelihood. The majority of them were South Italians and Sicilians. Many had been general laborers, railroad section hands, and pick-and-shovel men in the United States previous to taking up farming. In Europe most of them had been farmers or farm laborers. The reasons for going on farms here were various. Those who had been farm workers in Italy desired to go back to their earlier occupation. Some were ad-

vised to become farmers by friends, others settled on farms to be near friends. Among seasonal laborers, an important reason was that the entire family could work through the summer; the cost of living was also lower than in the city.

Most of the owners of farms have been in this country from ten to twenty years, while seasonal agricultural workers have been here a shorter time, in many cases less than five years. It takes a considerable length of time for the Italians to save up sufficient capital to buy land. Most of the farms now owned by Italians in New York State were paid for with money saved by the owners since their arrival here.

The rural communities are largely in Western New York. In the canning season, Italians go to Oneida, and in Geneva and vicinity there are large numbers depending on farm work during the season. Near almost all large cities, some Italians have market gardens. A few work in vineyards and orchards.

There is very little general farming, as they are ignorant of the methods of raising staple crops and of tending horses and live stock. With specialized crops like onions and celery, Italian farmers are generally successful. The farms are small, the usual size being from five to fifteen acres. The acreage depends on the size of the family, as the Italian farmer is loath to employ farm laborers.

Owners of farms are more Americanized than seasonal laborers and a larger proportion have taken out naturalization papers. The seasonal laborers do not have so much opportunity to mingle with the native population. Among them, however, there is a difference between the rural laborers and the ones secured from the cities. The country seasonal worker is often

employed by an American farmer, and has a chance to learn the native language and customs. On the other hand, in the cities, the laborers live in Italian quarters and associate very little with Americans. In the summer they live in gangs supervised by a padrone.

### *Rural Hebrew Communities*

The report of the Jewish Agricultural and Industrial Aid Society of New York shows that in 1909 there were approximately 3,040 Hebrew farmers in 36 States. More than 75 per cent. were in New York, New Jersey, and New England. North Dakota is the only Western State where Hebrew settlers are numerically important. Most of the settlements were formed of immigrants from Russia, Rumania, and Galicia, established by aid of various societies organized to help Russian Hebrews. Of these, the Baron de Hirsch Fund is the most important. It was incorporated in 1891 and was devoted by the philanthropist, Baron de Hirsch, to improve the condition of the Russian Hebrews. After the "May Law" persecution of 1882, in Russia, many Hebrews fled to this country and a dozen or more colonies were planted in Oregon, Dakota, Kansas, Louisiana, New Jersey, and Michigan. From 1882 to 1886 they were fostered with material aid and encouragement, but as all except the New Jersey colonies were utter failures, rural settlements became unpopular with the Hebrews. The Vineland, New Jersey, colony, however, was helped by fellow countrymen up to 1890, and then by the Baron de Hirsch Fund, and now is apparently permanently established and successful. There, Hebrew agriculture in America is at its best.



The 1,000 or more Hebrew farmers in New England and New York supplement their farm earnings by speculating in real estate, taking summer boarders or by some other outside source of income. The Hebrew is not adapted by training or tradition to be a pioneer farmer and in general his attempts at agriculture are unsatisfactory. The crops, tillage, the quality and quantity of produce are not as satisfactory as in most colonies of other races. The farm income is not large. The largest gross income noted was on the tobacco farms of the colony at Ellington, Connecticut, which has been established only a few years. The largest net incomes are probably derived from the Vineland, New Jersey, farms. The difficulty in making Hebrew farm colonies succeed has been recognized by the Jewish Agricultural and Industrial Aid Society, which has now established an experimental farm on Long Island for future rural colonists. To succeed, Jewish farmers must have some capital and improved land. They must settle in groups large enough to maintain a synagogue. Those most apt to succeed have been either farmers abroad or experienced in this country before becoming permanent farmers. Country life, however, has benefited the individual. Hebrew farmers live better than Poles or Italians of the same length of residence here. They show, also, a greater desire for comforts. They become citizens sooner than most races from southeastern Europe, and take a more intelligent interest in politics and civic questions. In many districts they have demanded better schools. Assimilation is retarded by religious traditions and rural segregation, but the Hebrew landowners are quickly Americanized, and soon appreciate representative government, demo-

cratic institutions and an educated electorate. There was no colony investigated by the Immigration Commission whose members voted less as a unit than those where rural Hebrews formed a large part of the electorate.

### *The Poles in Agriculture*

The number of Poles in agriculture is too small comparatively to be very important. Most of this race go into industrial pursuits, only a small per cent. into agriculture. The Polish agricultural groups investigated by the Immigration Commission were of four kinds: early settlements on new, wild, western land; later settlements fostered by owners of large tracts, to develop the land; recent rural immigration in the East, particularly to abandoned farms; and the Polish seasonal laborers. The first settlers on Wisconsin soil came from Canada and Chicago to Portage County, after 1850, and in larger numbers after 1859; but it was after 1870 that the real immigration began. In 1880 Wisconsin had 16 Polish churches, Texas 17, and Michigan and Missouri, each 6. After 1885 many Polish immigrants who had been engaged in industrial pursuits in the cities of the United States were attracted by advertisements of cheap land, and settled on farms in Wisconsin and the Dakotas. They bought land with the earnings they had made in industrial work. In 1855, 300 Silesian peasants settled in Panna Marya, Texas. Since then colonization has been slow, but steady. In the East it has been increased recently by numbers of farm laborers direct from Poland. This movement to abandoned farms is kept up by them, rather than by recruits from New England's industrial laborers.

The Poles are excellent pioneers, independent and self-reliant. They do not need assistance, tho in general the farm is their sole support. They learn by observation and the second and third generations improve on the first. The standard of living is rising in the older colonies, like Radom, Illinois, and Independence, Wisconsin. In some places land, that 20 years ago was forest or swamp land, now is 80 per cent. or 90 per cent. in cultivation and producing profitably.

The Poles are lovers of land and become farmers because they wish to own property, rather than to be laborers. Most of them soon leave seasonal employment for permanent farm work. The early settlers have changed the form of agriculture with changing economic conditions. In Portage County, Wisconsin, for instance, potato growing has developed to large proportions. In Texas the Polish cotton farms are prosperous, and one distinctive feature is that they are largely self-sustaining. In New England the Poles raise specialized crops, such as onions and tobacco. In the Connecticut Valley they rent land, because it is too valuable to purchase. In Illinois and Indiana many were tenants before they became owners, and in Texas there are many Polish tenants. At present the New England and Wisconsin colonies are showing the greatest growth. There is an influx to the latter from industrial centers, stimulated by agents and real estate men. The South and Southwest, however, are not receiving many immigrants.

### *The Bohemian Farmer*

The breadwinners of Bohemian origin in agriculture are settled largely in the upper Mississippi Valley, and in the States of Nebraska and Texas. The

first settlements in Texas were made in the early fifties, in Fayette County, and colonies continued to be established up to 1886. The McLennan County colony of 400 families is the largest in Texas. Since 1905 there has been increased immigration, as the breaking up of some large ranches has thrown more land on the market. The Bohemian farmers in Texas are nearly all in cotton growing, but raise enough produce to keep their families and stock.

The Bohemians in the Connecticut hills typify the movement of foreigners from industry into country districts after they have saved a little money. The few in Connecticut have been induced to move through advertisements in Bohemian papers and by real estate agents. They find many obstacles, for most of them buy old homesteads, and they lack the skill to raise a specialized crop on worn out soil. They have, however, an excellent reputation as farmers.

### *Other Recent Immigrant Farmers*

The Slovaks go rather into industrial work than into agriculture. In a general way they are like Polish rural settlers. At Slovaktown, near Stuttgart, Arkansas, is a colony of about 50 farm families. The Slovaks in Connecticut have settled on farms very recently, having been engaged in day labor previously. The Magyars also are seldom found in agriculture. East of the Rocky Mountains there are a few score Japanese farmers in Florida and Texas, and a few in Michigan and Wisconsin. The California alien land law aimed particularly at the Japanese and had the effect of diverting the attention of some of them to agricultural possibilities in other States. In Florida

they raise pineapples and vegetables. The Japanese in Texas are in specialized agriculture, consisting of rice-growing, trucking and horticulture. They soon learn American methods and the English language; most of them have invested comparatively large amounts of capital in their enterprises and some are agricultural students. The Japanese in Michigan and Wisconsin are laborers in the sugar-beet fields. The movement of Portuguese to the farm is small. The White Portuguese come from the mainland and the Azores, and the Black Portuguese, or Bravas, from the Cape Verde Islands. The White Portuguese are efficient farm workers and supply practically all the agricultural labor in Rhode Island. The Black Portuguese are either seasonal farm-laborers, dock hands, or fishermen. Portuguese have been rapidly entering the New England fishing industry, a large colony being located in Provincetown. Some of the White Portuguese are owners and renters of land in Massachusetts and Rhode Island. The Portuguese potato growers in Rhode Island often succeed better than their native neighbors, chiefly because they have a lower standard of living.

### *Seasonal Agricultural Laborers*

In all parts of the United States thousands of so-called seasonal laborers are employed, many of whom are foreign-born persons. In dairy and stock farming it is becoming more common to employ labor by the year, but in grain, vegetable and fruit growing, the seasonal laborers far outnumber the yearly ones. Beside the number employed for the entire crop season, there is a large body of laborers employed by the piece or by the day. They come in gangs, often



from a distance, and their season of employment is generally from four to eight weeks.

The races more usually engaging in seasonal farm labor are the South Italians, Poles, and Black Portuguese on Cape Cod, an increasing number of Greeks, and Syrians, and in sugar-beet culture the Belgians, Bohemians, Finns, Poles, Hungarians, and Japanese\* are employed. These races have been supplanting native Americans and the older immigrant races in berry-picking and to some extent in beet-culture. The Syrians, at present, are only one-fourth of the number working in the vicinity of Oneida, New York, but they are entering into competition with the South Italians. Since 1905 Greeks have, to a certain extent, been forcing out South Italians near Geneva, New York.

As the work of picking berries, weeding, and hoeing vegetables is very simple, women and children can easily do it. The seasonal farm work comes at a time when the schools are closed, so that frequently children and others who have no regular gainful occupation, do this temporary agricultural work. Many races make the family the working unit in the busy summer season.

The Hammonton, New Jersey, berry-pickers are typical of thousands of other seasonal laborers. Most of those studied by the Immigration Commission were South Italians, mainly family units, who spent their summers in berry fields and cranberry bogs, and their winters in Philadelphia. The cranberry-pickers of Massachusetts are largely Black Portuguese, who work as dock hands in New Bedford and other seacoast towns most of the year. Five-sixths of them are single men, or boys, who have

\* Japanese farming in the West is discust in Chapter XII.



succeeding in forcing out the Poles, Italians, and, to a large degree, the Finns. The Wisconsin cranberry-pickers are Indians or Poles. The Indians come from neighboring reservations and the Poles sometimes come from a distance of 100 miles with their families.

The sugar-beet laborers are chiefly Belgians, tho in Wisconsin several races do this work. In the winter, they are mostly in industrial employments; some of the Belgians, for instance, become lumbermen in Michigan. Wherever Italian laborers are recruited from a distance, the *padrone* system is in force. Sometimes the Massachusetts bog owners apply to labor agencies in Boston, Providence, or New Bedford, and a labor agent or boss handles the cranberry bog hands. Foremen are essential where unskilled foreign labor is employed.

Wages and hours vary greatly, and earnings vary both with the wages and the length of the season. In berry-picking and in beet culture, piece wages are the rule. The sugar-beet laborers are paid by the acre. The company guarantees the wages and there is a contract between the grower and the laborer. In Wisconsin the workers are paid \$20 per acre and one laborer by working long hours can take care of about ten acres. In western New York the Poles earn about \$18 to \$20 a month and board the year round, when they work at general agriculture. South Italian families average from \$350 to \$450 a season. Piece wages for men and women bring in from \$1.25 to \$1.75 a day in the summer and women often earn as much as men. In New York, the wages at agricultural work are better than in other industrial day

labor, when the cost of living is considered. Canning company employees in the State of New York work nine or ten hours a day, and the regular cranberry bog hands nine hours. The housing conditions differ greatly among the different groups of seasonal laborers. There are three systems of housing: first, permanent dwellings owned or rented the year round by the laborers themselves (this system exists where Poles and Italians live near their place of employment, as in the Geneva and in Orleans County, New York); second, permanent quarters or "barracks" built by the employers for use during the season; third, the portable houses provided by the sugar-beet companies.

As has been noted before, the standard of living of the seasonal laborers is much lower than that of permanent agricultural laborers of the same race. The Bravas, Italians, Greeks, Syrians and Japanese eat chiefly vegetable food; the Belgians and Slavs have more meat. The Sicilians in New Jersey sometimes spend as little as 25 cents a week for food, and the Italian workers on the New York cannery-farms, from 50 cents to \$1.00 per week. In one New York settlement, the cost of living for a family of four or five persons has been estimated at \$12 a month, when the family raised their own meat and vegetables. When all food was bought, the cost was raised to \$20 per month.\*

The Poles, Bravas and most sugar-beet laborers save some money. The Bravas are the most thrifty and deposit their earnings in savings banks. There are fewer citizens among seasonal laborers than

\* These wages prevailed at the time that the Immigration Commission made its investigation. Since then wages have fluctuated a great deal, so that no general figures can now be given.

among permanent farmers of the same race. The Bohemians and Germans, it is true, are in seasonal labor temporarily, using it as a stepping-stone to permanent farm work. With some of the South Italians, however, it is apparently a permanent status. The conditions among seasonal laborers are more satisfactory than the surroundings of the same laborers in railroad work, but the limited duration of the season has prevented a great influx of foreigners into agricultural industries. There is no regular labor organization among seasonal laborers, but occasionally they strike for improvements and when there is a scarcity of laborers they generally win.

### *The Dearth of Farm Labor*

The dearth of farmers and farm laborers has become a universally acknowledged and generally lamented fact. The 1920 census indicates that the drift from farm to city is still going on at a rapid and alarming rate. During the period from 1910 to 1920 the urban population of the United States increased 12,192,826, a percentage of increase of 28.6, while during the same time the rural population only increased 1,518,016, or 3.1 per cent. For the first time in its history more than half of the people now living in the United States can be classed as city dwellers. A closer examination of the rural figures is still more startling. The census makes two classifications in the rural population; namely, people living in incorporate places and the purely rural population. The incorporate places increased their population 1,745,371, or 21.5 per cent., over 1910, while the purely rural population decreased in actual numbers 227,355 during the same

period. Mining, manufacturing and commercial centers within recent years have grown up like magic.

The war brought about an abnormal internal movement of population. War cities grew up over night and the demand for munitions increased the populations of such cities as Bridgeport, Conn., Chester, Pa., and other industrial towns very much. Even the negroes felt the pull, large numbers migrating to the northern cities. At the present time there is undoubtedly somewhat of a drift the other way, but it is nowhere nearly as large as the movement which took place during the war from the country districts to the city. By their glamor they have attracted large portions of the agricultural population. It has become more and more difficult and, had it not been for the invention of labor-saving machinery, it would be impossible to secure the necessary labor to prepare the soil and to harvest our large staple crops. In the South and West the absence of a proper labor supply has prevented the bringing of vast areas of vacant lands under cultivation.

Strange as it may seem, contemporaneously with the decline in numbers of our agricultural population, there has been an ever-growing alien influx to our industrial centers, consisting of farmers and farm laborers from the south and east of Europe. During the past decade seven out of every ten immigrants who landed at our ports were southern and eastern Europeans. From one-third to three-fifths of these newcomers, the proportion varying according to race, had been engaged in agricultural pursuits before coming to the United States, but not one in ten have settled on farms in this country. They have found em-

ployment in the textile manufacturing localities of New England, the iron and steel, glass, clothing and coal producing cities and towns of the Middle and Western States. They have also penetrated to the West and Northwest and constitute in those sections the greater part of the operating forces of the mining and manufacturing establishments. There is scarcely an industrial community of any importance outside of the Southern States which has not its colony of Italians, Slavs, Hungarians and numbers of other races of recent immigration. In all sections the immigrant colonies are marked by a high degree of congestion and unsatisfactory and often unsanitary living conditions. The earnings of husbands are not sufficient to maintain an independent form of family life. Wives and children are at work in the mills and factories. Sleeping and living rooms of the households are crowded with boarders and lodgers who have been taken into the homes in order to supplement the family income. The significance of the entire industrial situation is that our manufacturing and mining localities are congested with an alien population of agricultural training and manner of life, while our farming communities are clamoring for more labor which they are unable to secure.

### *Why the Immigrant Does Not Go to the Land*

When it is recalled that practically all of our immigrants of recent years are of non-English-speaking races, the principal reason for their failure to settle upon the land is apparent. They do not wish to become separated from members of their own race, upon whom they not only depend for an expression

of their wants but to whom they also expect to turn in times of emergency or necessity. As a consequence, the alien of recent arrival seeks the colonies of his own people in our cities and towns. He becomes a miner, a steel or glass worker, or a textile operative, but does not enter farming.

There are also other reasons why the southern and eastern European does not go to the farm. Chief among these is the fact that the average immigrant of recent years, unlike his predecessor from Great Britain, Ireland and northern Europe, does not intend to remain permanently in the United States. After a few years of work and privation, he hopes to accumulate enough money to enable him to return to his native land and purchase a farm, remove a mortgage from property he already possesses, or to improve his economic status in some other way. He is not possessed of the pioneering spirit which would lead him to create a home upon new or vacant lands in this country. He wishes to earn as much as he can within a limited time, and by living upon a basis of minimum cheapness to save the maximum amount possible. The inducement held forth by an industrial establishment offers the most available means for the gratification of this ambition. The invention of improved machinery renders it possible for the manufacturer or mining operator to offer employment to the cheap and untrained alien. Furthermore, the necessitous conditions of the present-day immigrant when he arrives in the United States makes it imperative for him to seek work at once under any conditions which may be offered. He has no money with which to purchase land. In consequence the southern and eastern European farmer or farm la-



borer becomes transplanted to a new industrial environment.

### *Getting the Immigrant on the Land*

From the experience which has already been had with the recent immigrant, it is clearly apparent that if the dearth of farm labor and the congestion in the large industrial centers are to be relieved, the movement of the southern and eastern European to the land must be artificially stimulated. Under present conditions he has neither the means or the inclination to engage in agriculture. The barrier of language also prevents him from becoming a pioneer farmer. It is this fact also that has rendered failures all past attempts toward inducing recent immigrants to become farmers, unless they proceeded upon a colony or a community basis. Future activities in this direction must also be supported by large resources, for it will be necessary to maintain the foreign-born farmer while the land is being cleared and prepared for cultivation, and also to advance him the necessary stock and equipment with which to begin his labors. Undoubtedly the most successful policy would be to select those who are now living in industrial cities and towns and who have become partly Americanized and have accumulated some savings. Representatives from all races among this class of industrial workers are almost without exception anxious to improve their economic condition by engaging in agriculture. They are usually good intensive farmers by training and heredity. The fact that they can speak English and are usually possess of a small amount of capital greatly simplifies the problem of getting them successfully started on the land.

## VII

### IMMIGRANT INSTITUTIONS

In the immigrant colonies of industrial towns and cities, institutions have been developed to meet the peculiar needs of the immigrant population.

#### *Unregulated Immigrant Banks\**

Investigations by the United States Commission, as well as by several of the individual States, have developed the fact that a large number of so-called banks, organized for the purpose of doing business with the unassimilated immigrants of recent years from southern and eastern Europe, have been established in most of our industrial localities of any size or importance. The larger proportion are located in the manufacturing areas of the Middle States and New England, but in smaller numbers they are doing a flourishing business in all sections in which Italians, Slavs, Magyars, or other southern and eastern Europeans are employed. Immigrant banks are

\* An investigation of Immigrant Banks was conducted as part of the general Industrial Investigation of the Immigrant Commission. A number of field agents collected data from these institutions, Messrs. W. H. Ramsay and Raymond Kenny being chiefly engaged in this work. A special report was prepared by Mr. Ramsay, which, after some revision by Mr. F. J. Bailey of the editorial staff of the Commission, was published as a special document.—See Report of the U. S. Immigration Commission on Immigrant Banks, Senate Document No. 381, 61st Congress, 2d Session.

Accurate figures for later years are not to be had, although at the present time the total sum of money being sent to Europe must be very large. According to Commissioner Husband, of the United States Immigration Bureau, "the flood of American money going to Europe is greater than at any time in history." Approximately \$100,000,000 or more is being sent out in the form of gold, currency and drafts.

found in the isolated iron ore mining camps of Minnesota and Michigan, in all bituminous mining localities of any importance in the East, Middle West, Southwest, or South, and in all industrial localities which have grown up around such industries as textile, iron and steel, and glass manufacturing. The importance of the business conducted by them may be seen from the fact that probably 90 per cent. of the total amount of money sent abroad annually by aliens working in this country passes through the hands of immigrant bankers.\* More than one-half of the so-called banks also receive deposits, and, altho the average deposit is not very large the aggregate amount held reaches high into the millions. . . . The significant fact in connection with the entire system, however, is that only a comparatively few States have made any effort to regulate these private banks built up on the patronage of aliens. New York has the most drastic law. It has had a marked effect on fraudulent practises as under it about twenty indictments for larceny, forgery and misdemeanors have already been filed and two bankers have been sentenced to State's prison. The legislation of other States is not so satisfactory, altho Massachusetts has made considerable progress as a result of its investigation.

The New York State legislature has recently passed an act stringently regulating dealers in foreign exchange. This act was bitterly fought by many of the houses dealing in the business of sending immigrant savings to Europe.

\* Approximately \$125,000,000 in 1907 and \$70,000,000 in 1908 was sent abroad by aliens residing in this country through immigrant bankers that deal with nine of the largest banking agencies doing such business.

See pages 113, 114.

## THE TERM IMMIGRANT BANK A MISNOMER

As a matter of fact the term immigrant bank is a misnomer. The immigrant communities which have affixt themselves during recent years to our industrial towns and cities have many needs which can be satisfied only by a person or company familiar with the languages spoken, and with the customs, habits, and manner of thought of the people. There is money to be sent to the old country; friends and relatives are to be communicated with and brought to the United States, and business affairs must be transacted in this country and in the native land. To meet these needs the institution popularly known as the immigrant bank has come into existence. In many respects the immigrant bank is practically a bureau of information and a clearing house for necessary services to the immigrant population, and it thrives upon the ignorance and lack of assimilation of the immigrant people. Its banking functions, however, while limited, involve a large amount of money and affect the welfare of a great number of people.

The branches of business and employments carried on by the banks in addition to their usual banking functions are real estate, rental, insurance, and collecting agencies, notarial offices, labor agencies, postal substations, book, jewelry and foreign novelty stores, saloons, groceries, butchers, barbers, boarding bosses or room renters, printers, pool-room keepers, furniture dealers, and undertakers.

*The Origin of Immigrant Banks*

The connection between banking and other branches of business may be easily explained. In the mind of the immigrant, the steamship agent is the sole con-

necting link with the fatherland. As the representative of well-known lines, he ascribes to the agent a standing and responsibility such as he has no cause to assign to any American banking institution. Nothing is more natural than that the immigrant should take his savings to the agent and ask that the agent send them home for him. Having made the start, it is natural that he should continue to leave with the agent for safe-keeping his weekly or monthly surplus, so that he may accumulate a sufficient amount for another remittance or for the purpose of buying a steamship ticket to bring his family to this country or for his own return to Europe. It is not long before the agent has a nucleus for a banking business, and his assumption of banking functions quickly follows.

Those proprietors who confine their operations to banking and steamship agencies, as distinguished from those who conduct such in connection with some other business, are usually the most intelligent men of the immigrant population of any colony or locality. They are always possessors of considerable influence, and may be political leaders in the older and more established immigrant communities. Almost without exception, they are able to speak English and have some degree of education. Frequently they have reached their position of prominence through successful mercantile enterprise. Not a few got their start as day laborers. In most cases the basis of their success lies in a native ability which is by no means necessarily the product of business experience or financial training.

Native ability is not, however, the source of the success of the great number of those bankers who, in a purely personal way, are acting as custodians of their

countrymen's funds. The responsibilities imposed upon those who act as bankers for the immigrants are so light as to make the assumption of that important office dependent upon no other qualification than the would-be banker's ability to inspire the confidence of his compatriot, a matter which racial ties render comparatively easy. There are numerous instances where strangers have gone into communities and established themselves as steamship agents and foreign-exchange dealers. Their only qualification was that they were Italians among Italians, or Magyars among Magyars.

The ease with which unscrupulous and dishonest individuals secure the savings of immigrants, oftentimes the savings of a lifetime, has been recently shown in the case of Ponzi, of Boston, whose schemes for making millions in foreign exchange were advertised to thousands of Italians, as well as others. For a short time he was looked upon as an Italian hero, but when his record was discovered he was shown to be a crooked manipulator of high finance. Millions of dollars of immigrant savings were lost as a result of his and others' schemes. The present situation in foreign exchange gives opportunity for a great deal of fraudulent practise, which should come under the strict supervision of banking commissions in all States having a large foreign population. In Massachusetts the enforcement of laws designed to regulate this kind of banking has been one series of legal battles to determine the status of each individual concern.

The causes for the failure of the immigrant laborer to turn to the regular American institutions to satisfy his banking needs are threefold: (1) The ignorance and suspicion of the immigrant; (2) the fact that



American institutions have not developed facilities for the handling of immigrant business; and (3) the ability of the immigrant proprietor to perform for his countrymen services that otherwise it would be impossible for them to obtain. Possibly the greatest hindrance in securing immigrant patronage for American banks lies in the alien's ignorance of the English language.

A possible explanation lies in the fact that these races, largely agricultural in character prior to coming to America, are not accustomed to the extended use of banking facilities, or, if so accustomed, they confine their relations to the financial institutions operated by the government in their respective countries. They have learned that banks of this country are not government institutions, and for that reason look with disfavor upon them. Ignorant of American customs, unable to use the English language, and finding but little encouragement to overcome his hesitancy, the immigrant turns to the bankers of his own race as the only ones really able to perform the services he needs.

### *Ownership and Organization*

The tendencies of the members of different races to become bankers seem to be largely dependent upon the numerical importance of the several races in different localities and as a consequence upon the opportunity for doing business. Italians, Hebrews, Poles, Magyars, and Croatians are most frequently encountered as heads of banking institutions, altho scattered representatives of other races are also often encountered.

Immigrant banks are almost without exception un-

incorporated. They are, as a rule, privately and individually owned. In every center of alien population there is a very sharp competition among banks conducted by men of the different immigrant races. Altho the connection with New York City in one way is very intimate, there is no close alliance through ownership. It is believed that not more than a dozen of the immigrant banks of New York City have branches in the interior.

With some notable exceptions, branch banks are not maintained. Mismanagement and dishonesty on the part of those placed in charge appear to have been the leading cause of failures in the attempts to establish branch banks. The business is essentially a local development. Of the 110 establishments from which specific information was secured during the recent investigation by the national government, 97 reported that branches were not maintained.

### *Banking Functions—Deposits*

These immigrant institutions have only four distinct banking functions—deposits, loans, money exchange, and foreign exchange. Collections, domestic exchange, insurance, and rentals are carried on by a considerable number of banks, but the first four mentioned are the distinctive banking functions.

The receipt of deposits is as a rule merely incidental to the main functions of an immigrant bank and directly contributory to the personal interests of the proprietors. Immigrant banks are rarely commercial or savings institutions. Deposits are usually left for temporary safe-keeping rather than as interest-bearing savings accounts. Such deposits are not

subject to check, and there is, therefore, seldom need of clearing arrangements. Many so-called bankers do not openly solicit deposits and do not make a practise of receiving them, while others actively seek deposits as an important part of their business. But whatever the capacity in which the banker receives money, it is essentially a personal one in which he disposes of it. Beyond an understanding that deposits are subject to demand at any time, there is no consideration given nor limitation implied as to their use. So far as his depositors are concerned, the immigrant banker is at liberty to use their funds to suit himself.

The most objectionable use to which deposits are usually put is that of direct investment in the proprietor's own business. Grocers and saloon-keepers have admitted that deposits are used freely, to meet current bills, or are invested outright in their concerns.

Many immigrant bankers, especially in the smaller towns where the principal profits arise from the sale of steamship tickets, redeposit the funds intrusted to them in national or State banks. Many bankers thus derive from 2 to 4 per cent. interest on thousands of dollars which have been deposited with them, but upon which they are making no returns. If deposits are subject to such an active demand as to prevent their redeposit as a savings account, they are often deposited as part of the immigrant banker's checking account and thus made to yield a low rate of interest.

As a rule the immigrant bankers are not satisfied with the small profit secured by redepositing funds placed in their care. They seek opportunities yielding a larger return and in this way deposits come to be used for loans or investments. The larger and best class of immigrant banks make loans, just as the

ordinary American bank, in the regular course of banking operations. It is also extremely common for them to invest funds intrusted to them in real estate and stocks.

The most usual evidence of deposit furnished by the immigrant banker is the ordinary pass-book used by American banks. In some cases only a personal receipt or a deposit slip of the usual form is given to the depositor. Some of the smaller institutions make use of a secret word, and a few of the more irresponsible banks furnish no evidence of deposit whatsoever.

Deposits left for safe-keeping are seldom allowed to accumulate to an amount greater than \$100. Individual sums in excess of that amount are sometimes left for short periods, and the average savings account in some banks reaches \$200 and \$300. But \$100 appears to be the limit of an accumulation against a remittance home. In the table below are shown the aggregate amounts of deposits, the number of depositors, and the average amount of deposits of 31 immigrant bankers of different races, including some of all the classes of banks.

#### AGGREGATE AND AVERAGE AMOUNT OF DEPOSITS

*and number of depositors, in 31 immigrant banks, by race of proprietor*

RACE OF PROPRIETOR	Number of banks	Aggregate amount of deposits	Number of depositors	Average amount of deposits
Bulgarian .....	1	\$2,342	30	\$78.07
Croatian .....	3	16,585	248	66.88
Greek .....	3	21,441	185	115.90
Hebrew .....	2	19,900	220	90.45
Italian .....	12	94,027	1,487	63.23
Magyar .....	6	31,195	596	52.84
Polish .....	2	12,200	215	56.74
Slovak .....	2	11,500	215	53.49
Total .....	31	209,190	3,196	65.45

While the aggregate sum held by these 31 banks is comparatively insignificant, yet it represented the savings of over 3,000 laborers, the average of deposits being \$65.45. The extent of this business is well illustrated by the investigation made in Massachusetts, which gives the number of immigrant bankers furnishing bonds to the State Treasurer and the amount of money received by these bankers as deposits and for transmission abroad:

YEAR	NUMBER	AMOUNT
1907	68	\$5,635,722.63
1908	59	4,451,940.26
1909	64	4,300,953.00
1910	85	6,377,849.00
1911	76	6,336,727.00
1912	97	7,110,860.00

#### TRANSMISSION OF MONEY ABROAD

Immigrant banks act as agents in the transmission abroad of immigrant money.\*

The amount of money sent abroad by various corresponding banking houses of immigrant banks in the two and one-half years ending June 30, 1909, was \$141,047,381.92 in 1907, \$77,666,035.46 in 1908, and \$30,780,645.65 January 10th to June 30, 1909. These figures were furnished by four general banking houses, the financial departments of an express company and of a steamship company and three large Italian banks, including the New York office of the Bank of Naples.

\* As a rule, immigrant banks in the interior communities do not handle foreign money except as an accommodation to their patrons, buying from them such small sums as are not exchanged upon their arrival at New York, and securing for them, usually from New York or local banks, such as they may wish on departure for Europe.



These are the leading concerns through which immigrant banks transmit money abroad.

The amount of money sent out from Massachusetts in international money orders at United States Post Offices in 1912 equalled \$6,214,009.80. This, of course, represented only a part of the amount of money sent abroad, but indicates that the total sent from the United States in any one year runs into very large figures.

The remittances of immigrant bankers formed probably 90 per cent. of the total amount of money sent abroad each year by the above companies. It appears, therefore, that approximately \$125,000,000 was sent abroad, through these agencies by immigrant banking establishments in 1907. The influence of the period of financial depression after that year is apparent, transmissions through these nine houses falling from \$141,047,381.92 in 1907 to \$77,666,035.46 in 1908.

It is important to recognize that these transmittals of money do not properly constitute foreign exchange as it is commercially and economically understood. They are not commercial payments arising out of imports or the expenditures of tourists, but represent savings withdrawn from circulation here, and sent abroad for the support of families, for payment of debts contracted prior to or in coming to this country, for investment, or for accumulation for future expenditures there.

During the serious industrial depression following the financial breakdown of November, 1907, a great many alien workmen withdrew their deposits from the banks and returned to their native lands. Those without savings, many of whom had been in the



United States only a few months, in many instances found support through the assistance of immigrant bankers. Cases are numerous where bankers exhausted their resources and brought about their own financial downfall by services of this description. Some banks in the small industrial localities loaned as much as \$20,000 in small sums to unskilled laborers.

### *The Unsoundness of Immigrant Banks*

The unsoundness of immigrant banks, and the danger connected with banking of this character, are obvious. The United States Immigration Commission sets forth the evidences of insecurity as follows:

1. Immigrant banks are usually unauthorized concerns, privately owned, irresponsibly managed, and seldom subject to any efficient supervision or examination.

2. They deal with a class ignorant of banking methods, distrustful of American institutions, and easily influenced by the immigrant banker.

3. The affairs of the bank and of the proprietor are, as a rule, indistinguishable. As far as legal restrictions or the demands of his patrons are concerned, the proprietor is at liberty to use the funds of the bank for his own purposes.

4. In general, the proprietor's investments are the only security afforded the patrons of his bank. Neither capital nor reserve is required, and, as a rule, neither is found.

5. Men who operate these banks, particularly saloon-keepers, labor agents, grocers, and boarding bosses,

\* The 1914 investigation of the Massachusetts Commission on Immigration brought out the same facts as those of the United States Immigration Commission.

are often ignorant and without any conception of the responsibility imposed. Methods employed by bankers of this class are often very loose and unbusiness-like, and many advertise in a manner that is at least misleading, if not actually fraudulent.

6. Immigrant banks are radically different from other financial institutions. Their chief functions are the safekeeping of deposits and the transmitting of money abroad, and methods have arisen which should be corrected by proper governmental control.

The United States Government through the postal savings system has done a great deal as a competitor of these unregulated banks. Postal savings has been especially successful in the manufacturing and mining centers, where are found nearly all our immigrant population. Thrift has been stimulated, money has been kept in this country, and at the beginning of 1916 our Government had 540,000 depositors with a total credit of sixty-eight million dollars, of which foreign-born depositors owned 72 per cent. This huge sum shows the need and the value of definite action on the part of the Government. The advantages of close connections with the savings of their nationals in this country has recently been recognized by Russia, Austro-Hungary, and Italy. These three countries, through banks closely connected with their Government, have established branch banks in this country, which have made special appeals to their own immigrants. These governments were quick to see the possibilities in immigrant savings.\*

\* Further information on the question of immigrant savings can be secured from the excellent articles by Mr. Joseph Mayper, Executive Secretary of the National Americanization Committee in the *Journal of the American Bankers' Association*, December, 1915, and the March, 1915, issue of the *Immigrants in America Review*.

## ATTEMPTS AT REGULATION

Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, and Ohio have attempted special legislation regulating immigrant banks. The entrance into or carrying on of the business described is in these States made contingent upon the filing of a bond. The bond is conditioned upon the faithful holding, transmission, or repayment of the money received. In Ohio it is further conditioned upon the selling of genuine and valid steamship or railroad tickets. A most admirable feature of the Massachusetts law is the authority given the bank commissioner to fix the amount of the bond according to the amount of business carried on by each individual concern. The law enacted by the legislature of New York in 1910 is most comprehensive and its vigorous enforcement has proved effective. In 1912 253 private bank inspections were made and numerous violations of the law were promptly corrected and abuses stopt.\* It might well serve as a model for other States. This law prohibits the receipt for deposit of sums less than \$500, or the receipt of money for transmission in amounts less than \$500, except by banks or trust companies incorporated under the existing banking law; provided, however, that incorporation should not be necessary where a bond in the penal sum of \$100,000 had been filed, or securities for a like amount, in lieu thereof, been deposited, with the banking department. It provides further (a) that the banker shall have assets amounting to at least \$25,000 in excess of liabilities; (b) the issuance of a license dependent upon capital, character, and reputations; (c) the deposit by the

\*Second Annual Report of the New York Bureau of Industries and Immigration, p. 14, *ff.*

banker with the State banking department of cash or securities to the amount of \$25,000, or of a bond in the penal sum of \$25,000; (*d*) the filing of quarterly and special reports; (*e*) periodical examination by the banking department of bankers who file a bond in lieu of making a deposit of cash or securities; (*f*) regulation by the banking department of the character of investments; (*g*) provision that all money received for transmission should be forwarded within five days from its receipt; (*h*) the shifting of the burden of proof of transmission upon the banker; (*i*) regulation of the use of the word "bank" and equivalent terms.

### *The Immigrant Press*

The races of older immigration from Great Britain and northern Europe are served by a well-established daily and weekly press. In many communities there are also published in a foreign language immigrant newspapers, usually issued weekly, which appeal for support to a certain race or races of recent immigration. The majority have a circulation outside of the towns or cities in which they are issued, but there are no national publications which are recognized as the exponents of, or which are printed in the interests of, various races which have come to the United States within recent years.

The immigrant press is published by one of three classes of interests: (1) Racial organizations in the United States; (2) church organizations, and (3) business interests, consisting chiefly of steamship agencies and banking and mercantile establishments. The foreign language press in the United States has been growing rapidly. At the present time over

1,200 newspapers published in the United States are printed in some other language than English. In 1914, fifty-eight foreign newspapers were published in Massachusetts alone, altho New York is the great center of distribution. These newspapers in Massachusetts were published in Albanian, Arabian, Armenian, Yiddish, French, German, Greek, Italian, Lettish, Lithuanian, Polish, Portuguese, Swedish and Assyrian. Their contents usually consist of a digest of domestic and foreign news of peculiar interest to the race or races for which the publication is issued. As a rule they are strongly "national," at times taking a very partizan attitude toward political questions in the homeland. Many of them have also been organs of radical propaganda in the United States, a number of them having been suppressed during the war. Canada found the same difficulty and adopted similar measures. The foreign language press is a force to be carefully watched.

### *Immigrant Churches*

In all foreign colonies of any importance churches have been erected by the different races.

The influence of immigrant churches on the assimilation and progress of the alien population is discusst at length elsewhere.\* No general statistics are available as to their number and membership, but a good insight into the general situation may be quickly afforded by a description of the churches in a number of representative towns and cities. In Windber, a bituminous coal mining town in Western Pennsylv-

\* The Massachusetts Immigration Commission of 1914 has some excellent material regarding the immigrant press. Much material can also be found in the report of the Lusk Committee on revolutionary radicalism. Report of the Joint Legislative Committee of the State of New York, investigating Seditious Activities, 1921.



vania, with a population of about 10,000, the number, kind, membership and contributions of immigrant churches was as follows in 1909:

IMMIGRANT CHURCHES IN WINDBER, PA., 1909

Race	Denomination	Number	Number families	Number members	Average attendance on Sundays	Contributions per year	Year established
Italian.....	Roman Catholic....	1	300	2,000	200	\$1,500	1908
Rumanian.....	do .....	1	75	400	150	1,500	1908
Mixed.....	do * .....	1	200	2,000	600	1,200	1898
Mixed.....	do .....	1	160	800	400	3,000	1905
Mixed.....	Greek Catholic.....	1	300	1,800	350	2,000	1902
Swedish....	Lutheran .....	1	30	50	75	400	1900
Magyar....	Hungarian Reform.	1	50	400	100	650	1906
Total.....	.....	7	1,115	7,450	1,875	\$10,250	

\* In Italian section.

In Johnstown, Pennsylvania, a large steel manufacturing community in Western Pennsylvania, the immigrant church situation in 1909 is shown in the table on page 121.

The same conditions relative to the character and membership of alien churches obtain in all sections of the country where recent immigrants have settled. In general, they have brought their church affiliations from their native lands, or, in other words, their native churches have provided means for serving the recent immigrant in his new home.

It will be noted in the statement for Johnstown, Pennsylvania, that parochial schools are affiliated with the immigrant churches. This is also typical of the general situation. These schools offer, as a rule, both secular and religious instruction. A foreign language



is generally used in teaching, but in the greater number of schools instruction is also given in reading and writing English.

## IMMIGRANT CHURCHES IN JOHNSTOWN, PA., 1909

Race	Denomination	Number of members	Number of families	Year of establishment	Parochial School
Croatian...	Greek Catholic....	150	55	1907	None
Croatian..	Roman Catholic....	700	200	1903	Do.
Croatian..	{ Greek, orthodox....	600	100	1902	Do.
Servian...					
German...	Roman Catholic....	1,500	300	1855	Five days per week.
Irish.....	.... do .....	1,100	340	1868	Do.
Italian....	.... do * .....	300	100	1905	None
Magyar...	Colonist .....	75	30	1903	Do.
Magyar...	Hungarian Reformed	300	70	1903	Saturday classes
Magyar...	Roman Catholic....	600	200	1901	Five days per week.
Polish.....	.... do .....	1,200	300	1900	Do.
Slovak....	Greek Catholic....	1,200	200	1895	Do.
Slovak....	.... do .....	100	40	1908	None
Slovak....	Lutheran .....	500	100	1903	Do.
Slovak....	Roman Catholic....	500	100	1902	Do.
Welsh.....	Baptist † .....	} 700	300	1854	Do.
Welsh.....	Congregational † ..				
Welsh.....	Lutheran † .....				

\* In Italian section.

† In American section.

Note.—All except those indicated otherwise are in the foreign section.

*Fraternal and Other Organizations*

A large number of fraternal and beneficial organizations also flourish in immigrant communities. Some of these societies are political and social in their objects, but by far the greater number are for the protection of their members against sickness or death. Their existence is usually closely bound up with some church to which the members belong. Nearly all of the immigrant benefit societies are conducted on the

assessment plan with certain variations. The common method of conducting the society is that of a mutual organization with a fixed payment or assessment for death or other contingencies. Usually the payment is a death benefit sufficient to cover funeral expenses.

As an illustration of the character of the various immigrant fraternal and other organizations the table on page 123 which sets forth the societies among the alien population of Johnstown, Pennsylvania, may be presented as typical. Similar organizations are to be found in other industrial localities and the situation in Johnstown may be said to be representative of the country as a whole.

### *Immigrant Business Establishments*

Aliens of recent arrival in the United States, in the smaller industrial cities and towns as well as in the larger cities, are engaged in all branches of small business undertakings.

In some of the immigrant localities of recent origin, such as those in the different mining districts or in the comparatively recently established glass or steel manufacturing towns like Granite City, Illinois, large immigrant mercantile houses have been established to cater to the wants of the newcomers. They are usually a combination, consisting of a general store, saloon, banking and steamship agency, and rooming house, the upper rooms being used for the last-named purpose. Some of these establishments recently investigated by the Federal government represented capital investments ranging from \$25,000 to \$40,000. These mercantile houses, however, usually disappear after the

**FRATERNAL AND OTHER ORGANIZATIONS AMONG IMMIGRANTS, JOHNSTOWN, PA., 1909**

Name	Race	Character	Number of members	Dues	Benefits
Croatian Society .....	Croatian	Political and social.	100	None .....	None.
German Beneficial Union.	German.	Benefit.....		\$2.50 per month	\$10 per week for 5 weeks sickness; \$600 at death with 6 per cent. at end of 10 years.
Hungarian Musical Society.	Magyar.	Musical and social.	50	25c. per month	\$2 per week sickness.
Hungarian Reformed Society.	...do...	Benefit and social.	50	50c. per month and assessments .....	\$5 per week sickness; \$50 for funeral expenses.
Italian Fraternal Society.	Italian..	Benefit.....	250	50c. a month..	\$5 a week and doctor's attendance; funeral expenses.
Polish Benefit Society.	Polish...	...do.....	300	50c. a month and assessments .....	\$5 per week sickness; \$1 assessed from each member for funeral expenses.
Rothe Männer Benefit Society.	German.	...do.....	100	50c. a month..	\$5 a week sickness.
St. Joseph's Benefit Society.	Slovak..	...do.....	700	Assessment averaging about \$30 per annum .....	\$5 per week sickness; \$1,000 at death.
St. Laslo Benefit Society.	Magyar..	...do.....	700	Assessment \$25 on an average per annum...	Do.
St. Mary's Society (female).	...do...	...do.....	50	25c. per month; 50c. assessment on death of members..	\$1.50 per week sickness; \$25 funeral expenses, each member contributing 50c.
St. Michael Society (branch line).	...do...	...do.....	60	50c. a month; \$1 assessment on death of members ....	\$5 per week sickness; \$60 for funeral expenses, each member contributing \$1.
St. Nicholas Croatian Society.	Croatian	...do.....	800	Assessment \$1.50, \$2 per month, and \$1 on death of every member	\$5 per week sickness; \$800 at death, depending on the number of members.
St. Rocus Croatian Society	...do...	Benefit and social.	100	Assessment \$1 to \$2 per month .....	\$5 per week during sickness; funeral expenses and \$800.
St. Stephen's Benefit Society.	Slovak..	Benefit.....	750	Assessment about \$25 per annum .....	\$5 per week for sickness; \$1,000 in case of death.
Slavish Society Verhovay (Benefit, Life, and Death Insurance Society).	...do... Magyar..	Political.... Benefit.....	50 800	None .....	None.
				\$1.35 a month men; 65c. for women .....	\$5 per week sickness; \$800 at death for both men and women; loss of eye or limb, \$800.

community which they serve has become firmly established and, as a rule, immigrant business activities are confined to quite small establishments, restricted with some exceptions, as in the case of restaurants, fruit stands or shoe-shining parlors, to the sections of the cities and towns occupied by the alien population. The immigrant business man, by the mere fact that he is an alien, is placed at a decided advantage over native competitors, for the inhabitants of an immigrant community naturally patronize with one accord those of their countrymen who operate stores and shops.

There are no general statistics which afford an insight into the tendency of the different races to engage in business. The Greeks have gone into the candy and restaurant business to a large extent, while the Hebrews favor the clothing business. Moreover, in any given community the proportion of certain races in business enterprises will be largely determined by the racial composition of the community. A few statements, however, as to the business situation in a number of representative industrial cities will throw a light on the general situation. The tabulation opposite shows the number of immigrants in business and the kind of business followed in Lackawanna City, a steel manufacturing locality near Buffalo, New York.

Another illustrative example may be taken from Steelton, also a steel manufacturing city located near Harrisburg, Pennsylvania. In 1909 there were 85 immigrant business establishments in this city with an approximate capital investment of \$285,765. The number of immigrants in each specified business, by race, is shown in the table on page 125.

NUMBER OF IMMIGRANTS ENGAGED IN EACH SPECIFIED  
BUSINESS IN LACKAWANNA CITY, NEW YORK, BY  
RACE OF PROPRIETOR, 1909

Race of proprietor	Number engaged in each specified business							Total
	Barber	Clothing	Grocer and butcher	General mer- chandise	Jeweler	Saloon keeper	Shoemaker	
Croatian .....	...	...	1	2	...	11	...	14
German .....	...	2	...	...	...	2	...	4
Hebrew .....	1	...	...	...	1	...	...	2
Irish .....	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	1
Italian, South .....	1	...	...	1	...	...	...	2
Magyar .....	2	...	3	...	...	6	...	11
Polish .....	...	1	8	2	...	16	...	27
Russian .....	...	2	1	...	...	...	...	3
Servian .....	...	...	...	1	...	2	...	3
Slovak .....	...	...	1	1	...	2	...	4
Total .....	4	5	14	7	1	39	1	71

NUMBER OF IMMIGRANTS IN EACH SPECIFIED BUSINESS  
OF STEELTON, PA., BY RACE

Kind of business	Bohemian	Bulgarian	Croatian	German	Italian	Hebrew	Magyar	Servian	Slovenian	Total
Bakery .....	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1
Barber shop .....	...	...	...	2	...	...	...	...	...	2
Books, stationery .....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	1
Café, restaurant .....	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1
Cigars .....	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	1
Clothing .....	...	...	...	...	...	3	...	...	1	4
Clothing, jewelry .....	...	...	...	...	...	2	...	...	...	2
Confectionery .....	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	1
Dry goods .....	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	1
Fruit, tobacco .....	...	...	...	...	2	2	...	...	...	4
Fruit, tobacco .....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
General merchandise .....	1	2	3	2	4	3	1	...	5	48
Groceries .....	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	1
Jewelry .....	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	1
Meat .....	...	1	3	1	...	...	2	...	2	9
Milk .....	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	1	1	3
Pool .....	...	2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2
Second-hand clothing .....	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	1
Shoemaker .....	...	1	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	1
Shoes .....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1
Total .....	1	8	7	5	6	45	2	2	9	85

These statements from representative communities serve to illustrate the prevailing conditions so far as progress among recent immigrants is concerned in engaging in business and enterprises. Their activities are limited practically to small establishments for supplying groceries, clothing, meat, and other articles of general consumption to the recent immigrant population.

### *Coffee Houses and Saloons*

Another interesting institution often met with in immigrant communities is the immigrant coffee-house, which is modeled after similar institutions in Europe. It is intended to meet the tastes and habits of the Greek, Bulgarian and Turkish races who do not patronize the American saloon or drink intoxicants after the manner of the Germans, Croatians, Slovaks, Poles, Magyars, and the members of other races. The coffee-houses are usually large, well-lighted rooms, furnished with small tables and plain chairs. Tobacco in all its forms, including even the Turkish pipe, is to be had, as well as tea, coffee, cider, soft drinks, and ice cream.

Before the passage of the prohibition amendment, the immigrant saloon was quite largely used for general congregation and social intercourse. It was characterized generally by less drunkenness and disorder than American saloons of the same type. At the present time it would seem as if immigrant restaurants catering to particular races were taking the place of the old saloon. In New York City, for example, there are a number of Greek, Armenian and Russian restaurants, each with its distinctive dishes and foods.



## VIII

### LIVING CONDITIONS AND CONGESTION

#### *In Large Cities*

##### CONGESTION OF POPULATION A SERIOUS EVIL

For a number of years it has been the opinion of many of the workers for social betterment in our large cities, that the congestion of the population in the poorer quarters, is among the greatest of evils, and that this overcrowding is to a great extent brought about by the incoming of new immigrants in large numbers. The facts, however, regarding general conditions have not heretofore been well known. Previous investigations have been mostly the work of individuals sent out by the "social settlements" or by charitable societies with the purpose of making local studies. Inquires have not been made on a scale sufficiently large to enable one to judge of average conditions. It has been natural that investigators should see primarily the worst cases, and that they should note especially the great number of people living in a block, and should judge of the conditions very largely from the number of people, rather than from the circumstances under which they live. Furthermore, no accurate comparison between the different cities was possible.

##### METHODS OF INVESTIGATION

Recognizing these facts, and also the importance of the question, the Immigration Commission decided to

make as careful an investigation as was practicable.\* Seven large cities representing different sections of the country, different industrial interests and to a considerable extent the different immigrant races, were selected—New York, Philadelphia, Chicago, Boston, Cleveland, Buffalo, Milwaukee. By careful inquiries the sections of the city were chosen where the living conditions were the worst, and blocks were taken, as far as possible, that were inhabited largely by the representatives of a single race, in order that if there were any racial tendencies these might easily be discovered.

In order that not exceptional but average conditions might be noted, it was decided to question carefully every family within the area chosen. In most cases one side of the street between two cross streets was selected. As many as one hundred families at least of each race or nationality were studied in order that the conditions shown might be typical or representative. In a number of instances two hundred families and more of a special race in one city were investigated. In a few cases, where it was not possible to find within one block or within two or three blocks situated nearly together so many families of one race, those families were found in different sections of the city, and thus the ratio number was made complete, even tho the families were somewhat scattered. Generally speaking, however, the figures secured by the Immigration Commission represent living conditions in certain sections of a city where every family was investigated.

Ten thousand two hundred and six households were visited by agents of the Immigration Commission and

\* Reports of Immigration Commission, Vols. 26 and 27.

the statistics of 51,006 individuals were taken. It should not be forgotten that the investigation concerned only the overcrowded poor quarters of the cities. In those sections, however, the record is not that of the extreme cases, but of every case, and while very many most deplorable conditions were found, the fact is clearly established that a large majority of the immigrants in these great cities lead a hardworking, honest life, that their homes are reasonably clean, and that the undesirable conditions found in these congested quarters are in many instances not the fault of the inhabitants, but exist largely in spite of them, owing to the fact that the city authorities do not provide sufficient facilities for an adequate water supply, for proper cleaning of the streets, and for satisfactory drainage and sewerage conditions.

LENGTH OF RESIDENCE IN THE UNITED STATES A  
FACTOR

The investigation showed that the length of time that the people have been in the United States is a very important factor affecting congestion. After the immigrants have remained here for a considerable length of time, usually the wages are high enough so that they can acquire some property, and thus afford to move out from very congested localities into sections where living conditions are much better. Overcrowding is largely from economic necessity. It can hardly be said to be a matter of choice on the part of any race, or of more than a few individuals.

In the districts visited in the large cities included in the congestion study of the Immigration Commission, the races of recent immigration numerically best

represented were the South Italians, Hebrews, Poles, Slovaks, Syrians and Lithuanians; while among the races that have been in this country for a longer period, the Irish, Bohemian and German were the ones most frequently found. In all of the cities studied, the Russian Hebrews and South Italians were found in considerable numbers in the congested districts. In Chicago and Milwaukee, the Poles, Bohemians and other Slavic races were, relatively speaking, much more numerous than in the Atlantic coast cities.

Out of every 100 foreign-born male heads of households investigated, about 48 have come to the United States within the past ten years, and about 21 within five years. Of the races represented by any considerable numbers, the Magyars have the largest per cent. of arrivals within the past ten years, 84 out of 100. The foreign-born negroes have the next largest proportion. It is a matter of surprise to many people that the negroes are coming into the country as immigrants, but at the present time large numbers are arriving, especially from Porto Rico and other West India Islands.

It is noteworthy, also, that the immigration, at any rate in the districts studied, seems to be largely migration from the country to the city, of people that heretofore have been unfamiliar with city conditions. Out of each 100 sixteen years of age or over at the time of coming to the United States, 39 had been engaged in farming in the country from which they came. Considering only those races represented by 100 or more the Irish showed the highest proportion of those who were farmers abroad—69.2 per cent. The Lithuanians were next with 67.1 per cent.

The South Italians had 43.9 per cent., while very few Hebrews, either Russians or others, were farmers in Europe. Only 3.6 per cent. of the Russian Hebrews and 5.5 per cent. of other Hebrews were engaged in agricultural pursuits abroad.

#### OVERCROWDING IN ROOMS

The number of persons living in the houses in congested districts is, on the average, smaller than is ordinarily believed. In the households investigated by the Immigration Commission, the average of the number of persons for 100 rooms was only 134, and for 100 sleeping rooms, 232. The cities may be arranged with reference to the condition of crowding in the following order: Boston, 144 persons for 100 rooms; Philadelphia, 141; Cleveland, 140; New York, 139; Buffalo, 133; Chicago, 126; Milwaukee, 114. It should also be borne in mind that the question of overcrowding is rather a matter of rooms, or sleeping rooms, than a crowding of people upon the ground area. Living conditions are often much better in large tenement houses, than in smaller private houses that have been converted for the use of several families.\*

The investigation of the Immigration Commission showed that the congestion was considerably greater in foreign than in native households, whether whites or negroes are taken into consideration. Among the immigrant races represented by 100 or more households, the degree of congestion was found greatest among the Slovenians, where the average number of persons for 100 rooms reached 172. The South Italians averaged 166, the Poles 155, the Russian He-

\* Housing conditions have not grown any better since the report of the United States Immigration Commission. In fact, the absence of building during the war has undoubtedly aggravated the situation.



brews 147. The lowest average was among the Swedes, where the average number of persons for 100 rooms was only 93, and the Germans, with an average of 99.

#### OVERCROWDING IN SLEEPING-ROOMS

Perhaps a better test of the condition of congestion is found by the average number of persons per sleeping-room. By this test, the Slovenians again occupy the bad preeminence, with 2.99 persons per sleeping-room. The Poles with 2.72 persons, Slovaks with 2.63, South Italians with 2.54, and Magyars with 2.43, also show a high degree of congestion. The Russian Hebrews have 2.38 persons for each sleeping-room. In this respect the foreign-born negroes have the best record with only 1.90 per sleeping-room, the Swedes have 1.92, and the Germans an average of 2.03. The native-born people were on the whole distinctly better—an average per sleeping-room of 1.93 for whites and 1.78 for negroes.

In the immigrant households 32.8 per cent. had at least three persons per sleeping-room, while among the households of the native whites only 18.8 per cent. had that many per sleeping-room. Only 0.8 per cent. of the native-born whites had as many as five persons per sleeping-room, while among the Slovenians 13.8 per cent. had five or more per room and 5.2 per cent. six or more per sleeping-room. No other race had half as large a percentage with six or more per sleeping-room as the Slovenians. The native-born Bohemians and Moravians ranked next with 2.4 per cent., and the Greeks and South Italians each with 2 per cent. The Russian Hebrews had only 1.2 per cent., while among the Swedes the number found



with six per sleeping-room was too small for computation of percentages.

Of all the Greek households investigated, 42.9 per cent. occupied all of their rooms as sleeping-rooms as did 42.1 per cent. of the Syrians, and 22.7 per cent. of the South Italians, while of the Swedes only 0.7 per cent. occupied all of their rooms as sleeping-rooms, and of the negroes who were immigrants only 0.8 per cent. On the other hand, 7.6 per cent. of the native-born negroes of native fathers occupied all their rooms as sleeping-rooms, as did 2.3 per cent. of the native whites.

#### BOARDERS AND LODGERS

Overcrowding is perhaps most frequently shown by the keeping of boarders or lodgers. In the cities investigated by the Immigration Commission, about 26 per cent. of all the households visited kept boarders or lodgers. In New York, the largest city, the proportion was almost 25 per cent. In Milwaukee it was 16.6 per cent. In Chicago the largest proportion was found—30 per cent. Boston ranks next with 29.3 per cent. of the households studied having boarders or lodgers. Among the native-born of foreign fathers studied by the Immigration Commission, 10.2 per cent. of the families keep boarders; among the foreign-born, 27.2 per cent. Of all the Lithuanian immigrant families 70.3 per cent. had boarders or lodgers, as did 47.3 per cent. of the Hungarians, 42.9 per cent. of the North Italians, 37.2 per cent. of the Swedes, 41 per cent. of the Slovaks, 37.9 per cent. of the Slovenians, and 35.5 per cent. of the Poles. On the other hand, only 9.5 per cent. of the Germans, 5.3 per cent. of the Syrians, 16.7 per cent.

of the Irish and 13.1 per cent. of the Bohemians and Moravians, kept boarders and lodgers. It would thus appear that on the whole it is the new immigrants that take boarders, and there seems to be a considerable difference among the races in the extent to which boarders and lodgers are brought into the households.

#### RENT

The matter of overcrowding is in part a question of rent. Naturally this large factor in the living expenses is considerably higher in the Atlantic coast cities than in those on the Great Lakes. The rents are highest in New York, where the average rent per room was found to be \$3.89 per month, and lowest in Cleveland, where the average per room was \$2.03 per month. The average number of persons to 100 rooms was about the same in the two cities, 139 in New York, and 140 in Cleveland. The households of immigrants, as compared with the native-born wage-earners, paid, generally speaking, the same if not higher rent per room, but lower rent per person, as among the immigrants there was, generally speaking, a much larger number of persons per room.

The average rent per room paid by the different races, as shown by the investigations of the Immigration Commission, is a matter of interest. The native-born whites paid \$2.51 on the average, and the foreign-born \$2.90. The native-born negroes paid \$3.00, and the foreign-born negroes \$3.38. The highest average rent per room per month was paid by the Greeks, \$4.59. The Russian Hebrews paid \$3.51, other Hebrews \$3.52. The native-born Poles showed the lowest average rent per room, \$1.60; the Slovenians \$2.20; the South Italians \$3.28.

Quite different is the average rent per person both as regards location and nationality. In New York City the average rent per person per month was \$2.79, in Cleveland only \$1.37, in Boston \$2.12, in Chicago \$1.74. It is a matter of surprise to many that the native-born negro paid \$3.11 per person, while the native-born white showed a rent of only \$2.60 per person. Among the foreign-born, also, the negro paid the highest rent per person, \$3.25. The lowest rent per person, \$1.29, was paid by the immigrant Slovenian. In all cases the effort was clearly and successfully made by recent immigrants to reduce rent per person by increasing the number of persons per room. In many cases this was done by taking in boarders and lodgers.

#### HOME OWNERSHIP

It will be a surprise to note that approximately one-tenth of all the families studied owned their homes. The proportion of the home owners among the native-born whites was considerably less than half as great as among immigrants. Of those studied, 5.7 per cent. of the native-born and 10.4 per cent. of the foreign-born owned their homes.

Among the different races of immigrants, 25.8 per cent. of the Germans—the race with the best showing—had acquired homes. The Swedes ranked high with 19.4 per cent., the Irish with 12.5 per cent., the Poles with 17 per cent., and the Slovenians with 11.1 per cent. On the other hand, not enough of the immigrant negroes or of the Greeks to record, had purchased homes; while but 6.4 per cent. of the

Russian Hebrews, only 0.6 per cent. of the Syrians, and 4.6 of the Magyars had been thus provident.

This difference among the races was due in part to occupation, which leads the immigrant into different cities. In New York, which is a large tenement-house district, comparatively few, or only 0.5 per cent., owned their homes, while in Milwaukee, where smaller houses are found, 19.8 per cent. owned their homes, and in Buffalo 17.5 per cent. Even in Chicago 16.3 per cent. had purchased homes; in Boston, on the other hand, only 4.4 per cent., and in Philadelphia, with its many rows of small houses, only 7.4 per cent.

#### CARE OF HOME: SANITATION

Living conditions are shown to a considerable extent by the care and equipment of the home. An attempt was made to classify the care of the apartment visited into four different grades: good, fair, bad, and very bad. The investigators took great pains to see that the same standard was maintained in all of the different cities. It is a matter of interest to note that of the entire number studied, foreign and native, 45.2 per cent. of the apartments were considered kept in good condition, 39 per cent. were fair, 12.9 per cent. bad, and only 2.9 per cent. in very bad condition. The native-born ranked rather better than the foreign-born in this regard, 50.6 per cent. of the former and only 44.2 per cent. of the latter having their apartments rated as good. The condition of the apartments of native-born white Americans is even better if the distinction is made between the whites and the negroes in the native-born. Among the foreign-born there seems to be all through a very marked dis-

tion; in this regard the Swedes were best, 75.7 per cent. of their apartments being rated as good. The Germans were next with 71.5 per cent., and the Bohemians and Moravians were next in order with 65.8 per cent. of their apartments in good condition. Among the lowest were the Greeks, with only 12.2 per cent.; the Syrians, 26.1 per cent.; the South Italians, 30.9 per cent.; Slovenians, 30.2 per cent. The North Italians again ranked above the average, with 49.3 per cent., and the Russian Hebrews barely above, with 45.5 per cent.

#### WATER SUPPLY

The care of the homes, of course, depends largely upon the water supply, and this is a matter generally determined by the city authorities and not by the residents. The question of sewerage is also important. The districts investigated in Philadelphia and Cleveland made the least satisfactory showing in regard to sanitary equipment—facilities for water supply and for toilet accommodations. New York, as well as Buffalo and Chicago, made a comparatively good showing in this respect.

There seems to be a decided difference, nevertheless, among the various races—the South Italians and the Syrians among the recent immigrants, and the Irish among the older immigrants, not being so well provided with sanitary equipment as were the other races. This depends, of course, to a considerable extent upon the income, but apparently also upon the insistence of the persons themselves upon having proper water supply and toilet accommodations.

## HOUSING VERSUS HEALTH\*

Abram I. Elkus, Chairman of the Reconstruction Commission of the State of New York, as a result of a tenement house survey of New York City, made in 1919, states:

By the time this work is completed we will have visited 1,700 houses, consisting of about 34,000 apartments, accommodating between 175,000 and 200,000 persons.

In innumerable instances families are crowded together in dark, ill-smelling apartments and are unable to find other quarters. . . . To a great extent vacancies exist in Italian and other foreign districts. There has been practically no immigration during the past few years. During this time a great many of the inhabitants of the Italian sections in the lower and upper East Side went abroad to fight for their country.

Thus it is evident that the immigrants who have once known better quarters than the slums cannot be induced to live in them again. It is in the regions occupied by the newly arrived immigrants that the most miserable tenements are found. . . . It is apparent that one who has become accustomed to the comparatively better conditions in the Bronx and upper Manhattan cannot be induced to return to these portions of the city where the old, dark tenements are in such abominable repair. . . . All of these apartments have interior, dark rooms, but these exist in practically every neighborhood that was investigated by the committee. In a block in the East Forties vacancies existed in houses of a similar type. Very often they were caused by a lack of proper sanitary and toilet facilities. These were situated very often in the yards and were used by a number of families. The rooms in the vacant apartments are dark and in many cases damp. Practically all the houses were in need of repair.

Certain of the conditions that were found to exist in practically every block can be remedied by better management. These include lack of repairs, such as walls without plaster-

\* Michael M. Davis, Jr., on "Immigrant Health and the Community," p. 79.



ing, walls needing painting, dirty halls, courts and yards, and above all, unsanitary conditions brought about through lack of care of toilets.

A study of a block in the East Forties gives some very good examples of conditions difficult to remedy. The thirty-six tenement houses in this block are all old brick houses, built before 1901 and showing all the evils of the "old law" tenement construction. The lighting is particularly bad. Of some 1,200 rooms in the block, 600 have indirect lighting—that is, they have no windows opening to the outer air, only so-called windows opening on to another room. Of the other 600 rooms only half have windows to the street. The others open on a back yard or on a court. Of course, these 600 dark rooms must be used. In almost every case they are bedrooms. It is evident that at least 600 people and probably a great many more—since at least one, often two, three, and sometimes four people sleep in these dark bedrooms—are compelled to sleep under unsanitary conditions, no matter how well they keep their apartments. There are apartments of three and four rooms, arranged in corridor fashion—that is to say, each succeeding room depending on the last for the exit and entrance. On the plans filed with the tenement House Department, these rooms would be labeled successively parlor, dining-room, living-room, with toilet adjoining, and bedroom. Where only the last room is used as a bedroom, proper conditions would exist, but they cannot if, as is invariably the case, the so-called parlor and dining-room and often the kitchen are used as sleeping-quarters.

Emma Duke, in her study of "Infant Mortality in Johnstown, Pa.," for the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor, presents further evidence of ill health resulting from bad housing.

Overcrowding, according to Miss Duke's report, has a direct relation to infant mortality. In the four wards in Johnstown where overcrowding was greatest, the infant mortality was 190.2, which is over one-third greater than the rate for the whole city.

## INCOMES

The question of earnings is one of the very greatest interest. Over 10,000 males eighteen years of age and over were studied in this respect in the course of the investigation of housing and living conditions in the large cities. The average yearly earnings of these were found to be \$413, or, putting the matter differently, nearly one-half of them received less than \$400. The average annual earnings of the native-born white were \$595, of the negro \$441. The average, on the whole, of the native-born males was \$533, of the foreign-born only \$385, while of the native-born of foreign fathers the yearly earnings were \$526. Among the foreign-born the earnings were highest among the older immigrants—the Swedes earning \$692, the Germans \$613, the Bohemians and Moravians \$538, and the Irish \$535 each year. Among the lowest were the Syrians with annual earnings of only \$321, Servians with \$325, Poles with \$365, South Italians with \$368, North Italians with \$425, Russian Hebrews with \$461, and other Hebrews with \$465.

The women, as a rule, earned little more than one-half as much as the men. Two-thirds of them received less than \$300 per year. Of the races represented by 100 or more women, the South Italians and the Poles reported the average yearly earnings of women at less than \$200; about two-thirds of the South Italian women were reported as earning less than \$200.

CAUSES OF CONGESTED DISTRICTS

The chief evil arising from the incoming of the immigrants to our cities is the tendency to crowd together in a certain section, and, even when not living in unsanitary conditions, to remain isolated from the Americans, thus forming foreign colonies and checking assimilation. Naturally, the great majority that come to these cities come to join relatives or friends. The original selection of a residence is largely a matter of chance, unless it is determined by the residence of friends. The majority of newly arrived immigrants report that over three-fourths of their people have spent the entire period of their residence since they came to the United States in the neighborhood where they now are. Of course, the economic difficulty of changing their location hinders moving; but there is the further influence of a common language, the common race, and usually a common religion, which keeps them together. Moreover, in many cases the desire to avoid the expense of transportation to and from work prevents them from moving far from the place in which they have first settled.

On the other hand, the increase in earnings, improved education, social ambition, interest in American institutions, all tend to hasten the scattering and absorption of the immigrants into the general body of residents. Whenever their earnings have become such that the expense of moving is not important, or when they feel that they have finally established themselves as citizens, they naturally look for a place of residence outside the crowded districts. Ability to speak and read English, and familiarity with the conditions of the country, help their choice in selecting a new home.

Very frequently the influence of the children who have been to American schools and have grown up as Americans, and who in consequence do not like to be identified with a foreign section of the city, is a predominant factor in determining the selection of a new home.

### *Industrial Cities and Towns*

Unsatisfactory household arrangements and crowded living conditions are even more characteristic of the strictly industrial towns and cities than of the principal urban centers of population such as New York, Chicago, and other large cities. This condition of affairs arises in large measure from the less degree of permanency of residence among the purely industrial workers. The constraining motive among the immigrant wage-earners at first is to earn all they can under the existing conditions of employment, live upon the basis of minimum cheapness, and save as much as possible.

### **"THE BOARDING-BOSS SYSTEM"**

Mention has already been made of the preponderance among industrial workers of recent immigration of single men or, what practically amounts to the same thing, of married men who have left their families abroad. This situation, taken in connection with the low range of earnings and the desire to save, is responsible for the small extent to which an independent form of family life exists in the immigrant colonies of American industrial cities and towns. The heads of families find it necessary to take boarders

and lodgers into the home in order to supplement their earnings in the mines, mills and factories, while the larger proportion of males without families creates a demand for a cheap group method of living. The plan usually followed in industrial localities is popularly known as "the boarding-boss system." Under the "boarding-boss" arrangement a married immigrant or his wife, or a single man, constitutes the head of the household, which, in addition to the family of the head, will usually be made up of from two to twenty boarders or lodgers. Each lodger pays the boarding-boss a fixed sum, ordinarily from \$2 to \$3 per month, for lodging, cooking and washing, the food being bought by the boarding-boss and its cost shared equally by the individual members of the group. Another common arrangement is for each member of the household to purchase his own food and have it cooked separately. Under this method of living, which prevails among the greater proportion of the immigrant households, the entire outlay for necessary living expenses of each adult member ranges from \$9 to \$15 each month. The additional expenditures of the recent immigrant wage-earners are small.

#### OVERCROWDING

The congestion resulting from this method of living is very marked. A recent study of 15,127 households of immigrant industrial workers disclosed the fact that 4,978, or 32.9 per cent., kept boarders or lodgers. A similar study of 1,139 households of native whites showed that only 114, or 10 per cent., had boarders or lodgers. The following table shows the situation of the principal races of recent immigration among

whom the tendency toward congestion was most marked:

RACE OF HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD	Number of households studied	Households keeping boarders or lodgers	
		Number	Per cent.
Croatian .....	617	367	59.5
Italian, North .....	653	223	34.2
Italian, South .....	1,580	512	33.5
Lithuanian .....	791	456	57.6
Magyar .....	911	488	53.6
Polish .....	2,106	1,020	48.4
Rumanian .....	77	60	77.9
Russian .....	75	41	54.7
Ruthenian .....	531	302	56.9
Servian .....	69	64	92.8

The average number of boarders and lodgers for each 100 of all immigrant households keeping boarders or lodgers was 353, as contrasted with only 168 for each 100 native white American households. For some of the southern or eastern European immigrant households the average was much higher than that shown for all races. The Rumanians averaged 12.23 boarders or lodgers per household keeping boarders or lodgers, the Bulgarians 8.29, Servians 7.25, Croatians 6.39, and Russians 4.02. The crowding which resulted may be readily realized when it is known, for example, that one-third of the Bulgarian households were living in one-room apartments, and two-fifths in two rooms.

Of all the households of foreign-born wage-earners, numbering 15,127, about one-tenth were housed in two rooms, one-fifth in three rooms, and almost one-third in four rooms. The immigrant households averaged 581 persons for each 100 apartments, 138 persons for each 100 rooms, and 253 occupants for



each 100 sleeping-rooms. By way of contrast, the households of the native whites of native fathers had only 415 persons for each 100 apartments, 77 persons for each 100 rooms, and 184 persons for each 100 sleeping-rooms. Many of the households of recent immigrants had from four to eight persons for each sleeping-room, the maximum number being conditioned only on the available space.

#### CONGESTION IN SLEEPING-ROOMS

Another significant aspect of the situation is the tendency exhibited by immigrant households to use all of the rooms of their apartments for sleeping purposes. Of the total number studied in detail by the Immigration Commission about 5 per cent. used all of their rooms as sleeping quarters. Of the Bulgarians 63.3 per cent., of the Greeks 16.4 per cent., of the Ruthenians 12.1 per cent., and of the Slovenians 10.3 per cent. used all of the rooms of the apartments in which they lived for sleeping purposes. A little more than one-third of the immigrant households had only one room available for cooking, eating and general living purposes.

#### RENT IN ITS RELATION TO STANDARD OF LIVING

Perhaps the best general indication of the congested conditions and low standards of living which prevail in the households of immigrant industrial workers may be seen in the average rent payments per person, due to the tendency of the immigrants to crowd together in order to reduce the per capita rent outlay. The average monthly rent payment per person of wage-earners who were native-born whites of native

fathers was found by the Immigration Commission to be \$2.81, and of immigrant industrial workers only \$1.51. The Bulgarians paid only \$0.97, the Macedonians \$0.78, the Rumanians \$1.02, the Servians \$1.03, the Croatians \$1.09, the Ruthenians \$1.15, the Slovaks \$1.18 and the Poles \$1.24, rental monthly per capita. This fact alone would explain why American wage-earners often object to immigrant competition, and how, as in the case of money, the poorer supplants the better. Is it best for the country that an American wage-earner compete with a Macedonian on the terms shown?

#### TENDENCIES EXHIBITED BY RECENT IMMIGRANTS

General housing and sanitary conditions have been discust in another connection.\* The recent immigrant is more inclined than the native American or than other immigrants to use the so-called "company-house" system. In bituminous coal-mining, iron-ore and copper-mining communities in all sections of the country, members of races of recent immigration are more commonly found in company houses than the native American and British and northern European employees. Wherever possible, the two latter classes of employees settle in the urban centers around which the mining villages cluster. In the villages themselves, where all classes of employees are found, there is little discrimination as to the housing facilities, the usual policy of the mining companies being to rent the houses to the first applicants regardless of race. Likewise, the housing conditions of the immigrants in the larger industrial towns and cities are

\* See Chapter IV on Immigrant Communities, Chapter XI, entitled "The Immigrant as a Dynamic Factor in Industry."

unattractive and uninviting, and often unsanitary and dangerous to the community as a whole. Very little interest in his surroundings is evinced by the recent immigrant. The duties of the immigrant housewife are so arduous and so numerous that she has but little time to keep the living and sleeping quarters in a cleanly condition. The presence of a large number of boarders and lodgers also tends to make this impossible. Consequently the houses are dirty, as a rule badly kept, and there is little privacy or independent family life. As a rule, there are no water or sanitary appliances in the house.

#### TYPES OF IMMIGRANT HOUSEHOLDS

Space is not available to enter into detailed descriptions of immigrant households. As a concrete illustration, however, of the living conditions which prevail among recent immigrant households, two composite and representative cases may be described: (1) a household in an industrial locality conducted by a family with one or more children; and (2) a boarding group composed entirely of males. The first type of household usually occupies a four-room apartment. The rear room on the first floor is used as a kitchen and living and dining-room for the family and its boarders and lodgers. It is equipped with an ordinary cheap cooking-range, a plain table and simple cooking and eating utensils. Sometimes there is running water and a sink, but usually water must be carried from an outside source. In this room the household, which may consist of twelve to twenty adults and children, cook and eat. All the laundry work for the entire household is done in this room. It is also used as a general living and loafing-room.

The front room on the ground floor is the sleeping-room of the head of the household and his wife and children. It contains all their personal effects, which are very meager. Almost all of the available floor space is occupied by beds or cots for the family, and clothing is hung on nails around the walls.

The two rooms upstairs are given over to boarders and lodgers. Their furniture consists of beds or cots, seating facilities, so far as they exist, being afforded by the beds or trunks of the boarders. Usually four men sleep in each room, the only limitation upon the number in each room being the available space for placing beds or cots. Working or other clothes are hung about the walls on hooks or nails. In some instances the rooms are occupied by two sets of lodgers, the men who work during the day using the beds at night while the night-workers occupy the same beds during the day. Household conditions throughout are usually very dirty and unattractive.

In the case of the second general type of immigrant industrial households, composed entirely of males, the general arrangement is the same, except that all rooms are used for sleeping purposes. Groups of this character usually consist of four to eight men occupying one to two rooms, four men sleeping in a room. The rooms are used indiscriminately for general living purposes. The furniture usually consists wholly of beds and cots and a small stove for heating and cooking. The different members of the group take turns in doing the cooking and the housework. It is hardly necessary to say that, as unsatisfactory as are the conditions in the first class of households, the conditions in the group just described are much worse.

## IX

### THE STATUS OF IMMIGRANTS IN INDUSTRIES

Radical changes have come about within recent years in the racial make-up of the operating forces of American mines and manufacturing establishments. Native Americans and immigrant employees from Great Britain and northern Europe have, to a large extent, especially in the unskilled occupations, been displaced by recent immigrants from southern and eastern Europe and the Orient. The employment of recent immigrant races has been rendered possible by the development of new processes and mechanical inventions which, in a large measure, have eliminated the elements of skill formerly required of American wage-earners.

#### *Racial Classification of Industrial Workers*

An investigation by the Federal Government, including within its scope about three-fourths of a million industrial workers, has disclosed the extent to which the different races are employed in American mines and factories.\*

\* See Report of the United States Immigration Commission (18 volumes), entitled, "Immigrants in Industries." The investigation upon which this report is based was conducted during the last half of 1908, and the first half of the year 1909. The results of the investigation were not affected by the industrial depression which followed the financial breakdown of November, 1907. In the case of the study of families or individuals whose incomes had been impaired by the depression, an allowance was made, and normal earnings and incomes secured. The same method was followed in making inquiries as to housing and living conditions. In this connection, if the investigation were influenced by the industrial depression, the result would be a more favorable showing for the recent immigrant, for the reason that a large proportion had returned to their native countries, and thus lessened the degree of congestion which would normally obtain. The data received from 700,000 employees were practically all obtained during the first half of 1909, and are representative of normal conditions. For a full account of the history and scope of the investigation, see "The Industrial Investigations of the United States Immigration Commission," *Journal of Political Economy*, July, 1910.



Of the total number of 619,595 industrial workers included in this study, 346,203, or more than one-half, were of foreign birth. It was found that only one-fifth of the total number of wage-earners in twenty-one of the principal branches of industry were native white Americans, while almost three-fifths were of foreign birth; 17 per cent. were industrial workers of the second generation, or of native birth but of foreign father, and 5 per cent. were native negroes. About 30 per cent. of all the females, as contrasted with only 14 per cent. of the men, are native-born of foreign father. Of the total number of wage-earners of foreign birth and of the immigration of former years, the Germans form the largest proportion, followed by the French-Canadians, English, Irish, Swedes, Scotch, French and Welsh, in the order named. Of the races of recent arrival in the United States, the largest proportion of wage-earners is furnished by the Poles, the representation of this race being almost one-tenth of the entire operating forces of the principal industries of the country. The race next most extensively employed is the Slovak, followed by the South Italian, which race, in turn, is closely followed by the North Italian. The Magyar, Lithuanian and Croatian races appear in the next largest proportions. Altogether, fifty-six distinct races appeared in the working forces of the mines and manufacturing establishments included in the recent comprehensive inquiry of the Immigration Commission. Thirty-seven of these races were of the south and east of Europe or of the Orient. Almost one-half of all the wage-earners were from southern and eastern European countries.

The proportion of foreign-born among the opera-



ting forces of the principal branches of manufacturing and mining were as follows: more than one-half of the iron and steel workers, employees of oil refineries, slaughtering and meat-packing establishments, furniture factories, leather tanneries and finishing establishments and woolen and worsted goods and cotton-mill operatives; about two-fifths of the glass workers; one-third of the silk-mill operatives, glove-factory employees and cigar and tobacco makers; seven-tenths of men and women garment makers; more than one-fourth of the boot and shoe factory operatives; four-fifths of the wage-earners in sugar refineries.

The native-born white Americans, or native-born whites of native father, are employed most extensively in the manufacture of cigars and tobacco, collars and cuffs, glass, gloves, and shoes. Only a small proportion, ranging from one-tenth to one-fifth of the wage-earners in the other leading branches of industry in the country, are native white Americans. The native negroes have their largest numbers of wage-earners in cigar and tobacco manufacturing, bituminous coal mining, construction work, and iron-ore mining of the Southern States; considerable proportions are also engaged in the slaughtering and meat-packing industry. The wage-earners of the second generation, or of native birth of foreign father, have about the same racial distribution according to industries as the native-born whites of native father.

French-Canadians are principally employed in the manufacture of cotton goods, woolen and worsted goods, in copper mining and smelting, and in the manufacture of shoes and collars and cuffs. The Croatians are found in the largest proportions in railroad and other construction work, copper mining and

smelting, iron and steel manufacturing, iron-ore mining, slaughtering and meat packing, bituminous coal mining, leather manufacturing and oil refining. The Cuban and Spanish races are almost exclusively wage-earners in cigar and tobacco factories. The Danish appear in the greatest number in collar and cuff manufacture. By far the largest proportions of the Dutch are employed in furniture factories, a considerable percentage also being found in silk dyeing and silk goods manufacturing establishments. The English and German wage-earners appear among the working forces of all the principal branches of industry, the largest proportions of the former race being engaged in the manufacture of gloves, woolen and worsted goods, copper mining and smelting, and the manufacture of cotton goods, while the Germans have the largest numbers in sugar refining, silk dyeing, leather manufacturing and in the manufacture of agricultural implements and vehicles. The Finns are chiefly employed in copper mining and smelting and in iron-ore mining on the Minnesota and Michigan ranges. The Greek race shows the largest number of representatives in leather and cotton goods manufacturing and in railroad and other construction work. Hebrews have by far the largest proportions engaged in making clothing. Relatively large numbers of this race are also found in glove and shoe factories.

North and South Italians are most extensively employed in silk dyeing, railroad and other construction work, iron-ore mining, bituminous coal mining and in clothing manufacturing. Larger or smaller proportions of Lithuanians appear in practically all of the principal branches of industry, the highest percentages of wage-earners of this race being engaged in sugar

refining, clothing and furniture manufacturing, in the making of agricultural implements and vehicles, in oil refining and bituminous coal mining. Magyars are also well distributed, the greatest numbers being found in iron and steel manufacturing, bituminous coal mining, agricultural implements, silk dyeing, and sugar refining. The Poles engage in all classes of industries, the largest proportions being employed in sugar refineries, agricultural implement and vehicle establishments, cotton mills, furniture factories, bituminous coal mines, slaughtering and meat packing, and leather manufacturing. The Portuguese are not wage-earners in any considerable numbers outside the cotton mills. The Rumanians, who appear in small numbers in several different industries, have their largest representation in railroad and other construction work and in iron and steel manufacturing. Russians are extensively engaged in sugar refining, slaughtering and meat packing, the manufacture of clothing and in bituminous coal mining. The Slovak race is most largely employed in bituminous coal mining, oil refining, and iron and steel manufacturing. In the minor industries, foreign-born workmen are found in varying proportions. In small manufactures where skill and experience are required of employees, the native Americans and older immigrants from northern and western Europe predominate. Where machinery is used, southern and eastern Europeans have usually found a lodgment in the working forces. Sixty per cent. or more of the male portion of the operating forces in carpet, cutlery and tools, rope, twine and hemp, and zinc-smelting manufacturing establishments, as well as 50 to 60 per cent. in car building and repairing, foundry and machine-shop products,

and sewing-machine manufacturing, are of foreign birth.

### *Length of Residence of Immigrant Employees*

Of the employees in twenty of the most important industries enumerated above, information concerning length of residence in the United States was secured for 290,923 foreign-born persons. Of that number, 116,466, or 40 per cent., had been in the United States less than five years. Of the total number belonging to races coming from northern and western Europe and Canada, less than one-fifth had been in the United States less than five years, while of the employees of other races—almost entirely from southern and eastern Europe—slightly more than one-half had been in this country less than five years. About one-third of the foreign-born employees were of races from northern and western Europe and Canada, but of the immigrant employees who had been in the United States less than five years, only 14.3 per cent. were of these geographical areas.

### *Reason for the Employment of Southern and Eastern Europeans*

The employment of recent immigrant wage-earners in the United States was originally due to the inability of the manufacturers and mine operators to secure other labor at the same wages in the face of the growing labor needs of the country. How far there was afterward a reversal of cause and effect, and to what extent the expansion of industry was stimulated by the availability of the recent immigrant labor sup-

ply, can not be definitely stated. It is a matter of speculation and controversy, without any data at present upon which to base an approximate determination. Whatever may have been the opinion of employers as to the desirability of this class of labor, they found it necessary either to employ immigrant labor or delay industrial advancement. They chose the former course; and the present industrial situation is the result.

### *Occupations of Immigrants*

It may be said, in general, that the recent immigrant wage-earners from the south and east of Europe are found on the lowest level of the industrial scale. Many members of the different races of recent arrival in the United States have advanced in the order of occupations, but these are rather cases of individual than of racial progress. Most of the newcomers have been without any training or experience abroad in manufacturing or mining, and have been employed in the common or unskilled labor of the different branches of industry in this country, or they have been given work to do in connection with machine processes which are largely automatic and which require no special training or apprenticeship. The one notable exception in this respect is furnished by the Russian and other Hebrews, the majority of whom have had some industrial or technical training before coming to the United States. As a consequence, they find employment chiefly in the hand trades, or enter into business in a small way after reaching this country. The only branches of manufacturing in which Russian and other Hebrews are extensively engaged are clothing, silk goods, boots and shoes, and gloves.



*Weekly and Daily Earnings, According to Race, Age,  
Sex and Industry*

The rates of pay and earnings, therefore, of southern and eastern European industrial workers, roughly correspond to the prevailing rates of remuneration and earnings of unskilled workmen. In some branches of mining and manufacturing they are paid on a piece-rate basis, and consequently the most satisfactory exhibit of their industrial efficiency or earning ability may be presented in the shape of weekly earnings.\* The following statement shows, by general nativity, the average weekly earnings of 220,390 male industrial workers, eighteen years of age or over, during a normal industrial week of 1909:

	Total Number	Average Amount of Weekly Earnings
Native-Born of Native Father—		
White .....	41,933	\$14.37
Negro .....	6,604	10.66
Native-Born of Foreign Father..	32,242	13.91
Total Native-Born.....	80,780	13.89
Total Foreign-Born.....	139,610	11.92
Grand Total.....	220,390	12.64

It is seen that the average weekly earnings for the native-born white employees of native father or, in other words, native white Americans, were \$14.37, as contrasted with \$13.91 for those of native birth but of foreign father, and \$11.92 for the total number of employees of foreign birth. The earnings of the British and northern European immigrants of former years are also higher than those of the newly arrived southern and eastern Europeans.

\* See Appendix C for a detailed presentation of earnings according to general nativity and race.



A conception of the earning possibilities of the immigrant women may be gathered from the table below, which shows the amount of weekly earnings of 57,712 female wage-earners who were eighteen years of age or over:

	Total Number	Average Amount of Weekly Earnings
Native-Born of Native Father—		
White .....	9,019	\$7.91
Native-Born of Foreign Father.	15,930	8.11
<hr/>		
Total Native-Born .....	24,966*	8.04
Total Foreign-Born .....	32,746	7.90
<hr/>		
Grand Total .....	57,712	7.96

\* 17 negro women wage-earners are included in this total.

The foregoing statement makes it clearly evident that the weekly earnings for the women industrial workers are much lower than those for the men. The average amount earned each week by the native American white women was \$7.91, as against \$8.11 for native-born female wage-earners of foreign father, and \$7.90 for immigrant women, the lower earnings of the American women being due (1) to their refusal to do the disagreeable class of work which immigrant women accept, and (2) to their inability or disinclination to work such long hours as the foreign-born females, in the case of certain piece-rate occupations, as, for example, the clothing industry. The earnings of the members of the races of old immigration from Great Britain and northern Europe range higher than those of representatives of races of recent arrival in the United States, which causes the showing for the total native-born to be higher than that of the total foreign-born.

During the same week that the foregoing figures,

relative to adult wage-earners, were collected, information was also secured as to the average weekly earnings of 13,682 male and 14,803 female industrial workers who were fourteen but under eighteen years of age. The showing made by the different groups was as follows:

<i>Male</i>		
	Total Number	Average Amount of Weekly Earnings
Native-Born of Native Father, White	4,016	\$6.60
Native-Born of Foreign Father.....	5,687	6.39
Foreign-Born .....	3,656	6.26
Grand Total * .....	13,682	6.42

\* Includes figures for the native-born negro.

<i>Female</i>		
	Total Number	Average Amount of Weekly Earnings
Native-Born of Native Father, White	3,126	\$5.25
Native-Born of Foreign Father.....	7,244	5.31
Foreign-Born .....	4,429	5.85
Grand Total * .....	14,803	5.46

\* Total includes figures for the native-born negro.

In the case of each sex, the earnings of the three general nativity groups are about the same, but the averages for the females are materially lower than those for the males. The male industrial workers between the ages of fourteen and eighteen years average only a little more than one dollar each day, while the earnings for the females are even less.

As regards the earnings of the adult male wage-earners, in the principal branches of mining and manufacturing, the native wage-earners have their highest average weekly earnings, \$16.87, in glass-bottle factories, and their next highest, \$16.54, in the iron and

steel industry. In no other industries do the earnings of native-born American industrial workers average as much as \$15 each week, the lowest earnings of white Americans, \$11.02, being exhibited by those employed in the leather-manufacturing industry. The average earnings of the native white Americans in the cotton and woolen goods manufacturing industries are also small, the average weekly earnings of employees in the former being \$11.60 and in the latter \$11.62.\*

If a comparison be made of the second generation, or those of native birth but of foreign father, with the native American, we note the average weekly earnings of the former are somewhat higher than those of the latter in the manufacture of agricultural implements and vehicles, clothing, furniture, glove, iron and steel, iron-ore mining and copper mining and smelting, leather, shoe, silk dyeing, silk goods, woolen and worsted goods, and considerably higher in all divisions of glass manufacturing. The high averages for the native-born employees of foreign father in glass factories arises from the presence of workmen who had acquired skill through long experience of their races in this industry. The weekly earnings of the native-born French of foreign father, by way of illustration, average \$19.83 in glass-bottle manufacturing, as contrasted with \$10.51 for the Italians.

With the exception of those in copper mining and smelting, oil refining, iron-ore mining, and the manufacture of gloves and collars and cuffs, the average weekly earnings of foreign-born employees are lower for all industries than those of the native-born. The

\* A detailed showing of wages by race and principal branches of industry will be found in Appendix E.

general utilization of immigrants of recent years as unskilled workmen, and their consequent lower earning capacity, is well illustrated by the low averages for the foreign-born glass workers as contrasted with those of native birth. The lowest earnings of the foreign-born wage-earners are shown in connection with the cotton-goods manufacturing industry, where their average weekly wages are \$9.28. The average weekly rate in the woolen and worsted goods industry is also low, being only \$9.96.

The foreign-born members of races from Great Britain and northern Europe show a higher level of average weekly earnings than do those from southern and eastern Europe. One of the most striking facts indicated by a comparison of the earnings of the races in the different industries is that earning ability is more the outcome of industrial opportunity or conditions of employment than of racial efficiency and progress. This fact becomes evident when the average weekly earnings of the members of a race, or of several races, in the cotton or woolen and worsted goods industry, are considered in connection with the earnings of the same race or races in other industries. The Lithuanians, for example, earn an average of \$12.24 weekly in the manufacture of agricultural implements and vehicles, \$11.60 in clothing, \$13.60 in copper mining and smelting, \$9.87 in furniture, \$12.89 in iron and steel, \$11.98 in iron-ore mining, \$9.50 in leather, \$12.85 in oil refining, \$10.87 in shoes, \$10.67 in sugar refining, but only \$7.86 in cotton and \$7.97 in woolen and worsted manufacturing. The same condition of affairs is shown by other races in different industries.

A more detailed showing as to the status of the

different nativity groups in the various branches of mining and manufacturing may be found in the table on p. 160, which sets forth by general nativity and industry, the average weekly earnings of 220,390 male employees, eighteen years of age or over, and of 13,682 who were fourteen and under eighteen years of age.

Of the 13,682 male employees who were fourteen and under eighteen years of age, the average weekly earnings were \$6.42. Among those of native birth the highest average weekly earnings, amounting to \$10.05, are shown by those engaged in the manufacture of window-glass, and the lowest, \$4.60, by silk-mill operatives. Of the foreign-born industrial workers in this age group, the highest average weekly earnings, \$9.17, are exhibited by the iron-ore mine workers, and the lowest, \$5.48, by the employees of silk goods manufacturing establishments. The considerably higher average weekly earnings shown by employees of copper mines and smelters and iron-ore mines, as contrasted with the earnings of employees of manufacturing establishments, are probably due to the fact that in mining, under existing methods, it is possible for a youth to do the same kind of work and receive approximately the same remuneration as an adult.

The table on page 161 shows, by general nativity and industry, the average amount of weekly earnings of 57,712 female employees eighteen years of age or over, and of 14,803 fourteen and under eighteen years of age.

The average weekly earnings for all females eighteen years of age or over are \$7.96. Of those of native birth the highest average weekly earnings, \$8.54, are exhibited by the employees of clothing



**AVERAGE AMOUNT OF WEEKLY EARNINGS OF MALE EMPLOYEES,  
BY GENERAL NATIVITY AND INDUSTRY\***

*18 years of age or over.*

INDUSTRY	Native-born			Total native-born	Foreign-born	Total
	Native father		Foreign father			
	White	Negro				
Agricultural imple- m'ts & vehicles	\$13.23	\$11.38	\$13.62	\$13.38	\$12.89	\$13.09
Boots and shoes	12.57	10.03	12.84	12.64	11.19	12.11
Clothing	14.59	(a)	15.66	15.39	12.91	13.30
Collars, cuffs, etc.	12.58	.....	11.89	12.36	14.09	12.56
Copper mining, etc.	12.49	(a)	13.78	12.98	13.87	13.57
Cotton goods	11.60	(a)	10.45	10.89	9.28	9.68
Furniture	11.43	10.50	12.31	11.81	11.58	11.67
Glass:						
Bottles	16.87	9.98	19.54	17.05	12.63	15.73
Plate glass	12.86	12.90	13.67	13.00	11.48	12.07
Tableware	14.29	(a)	15.07	14.56	13.59	14.20
Window glass	15.58	12.63	17.22	15.89	14.11	15.11
Gloves	11.49	.....	12.31	11.67	12.80	12.23
Iron and steel	16.54	10.64	16.62	15.86	13.29	14.35
Iron ore mining	11.60	10.61	14.24	11.22	13.96	12.72
Leather	11.02	9.75	12.15	11.50	10.27	10.64
Oil refining	14.83	12.07	13.67	14.01	13.71	13.81
Silk dyeing	12.46	.....	12.75	12.58	11.99	12.13
Silk goods	12.89	.....	13.15	13.05	12.18	12.50
Sugar refining	13.42	8.25	13.12	12.98	11.64	11.82
Woolen and wor- sted goods	11.62	(a)	11.74	11.69	9.96	10.49
Total	14.37	10.66	13.91	13.89	11.92	12.64

*14 and under 18 years of age.*

Agricultural imple- m'ts & vehicles	\$7.78	(a)	\$7.57	\$7.66	\$7.40	\$7.62
Boots and shoes	5.84	(a)	5.96	5.88	6.66	5.99
Clothing	5.32	(a)	5.73	5.66	6.52	6.17
Collars, cuffs, etc.	5.69	.....	(a)	5.65	.....	5.65
Copper mining, etc.	7.92	.....	8.70	8.29	8.42	8.31
Cotton goods	6.09	.....	6.01	6.03	5.82	5.94
Furniture	6.50	(a)	6.41	6.44	6.21	6.38
Glass:						
Bottles	5.98	\$6.22	5.35	5.76	6.35	5.85
Plate glass	7.98	(a)	7.60	7.81	8.04	7.87
Tableware	6.03	(a)	5.53	5.78	6.83	7.40
Window glass	10.80	.....	(a)	10.05	(a)	10.16
Gloves	5.25	.....	(a)	4.90	.....	4.90
Iron and steel	8.04	7.44	7.65	7.83	7.96	7.85
Iron ore mining	6.81	5.79	11.32	6.58	9.17	6.77
Leather	6.14	(a)	6.63	6.42	6.19	6.36
Oil refining	7.77	.....	7.79	7.78	7.74	7.77
Silk dyeing	6.13	.....	(a)	6.42	(a)	6.72
Silk goods	4.38	.....	4.71	4.60	5.48	4.78
Sugar refining	5.76	(a)	5.49	5.61	6.52	5.87
Woolen and wor- sted goods	6.31	(a)	6.40	6.38	5.84	6.19
Total	6.60	6.38	6.39	6.48	6.26	6.42

a Not computed, owing to small number involved.

\* This table shows wages or earnings for the period indicated, but no account is taken of voluntarily lost time or lost time from shut-down or other causes. In the various tables in this report showing annual earnings allowance is made for time lost during the year.



# STATUS OF IMMIGRANTS IN INDUSTRIES 161

## AVERAGE AMOUNT OF WEEKLY EARNINGS OF FEMALE EMPLOYEES, BY GENERAL NATIVITY AND INDUSTRY\*

18 years of age or over.

INDUSTRY	Native-born			Total native-born	Foreign-born	Total
	Native father		Foreign father			
	White	Negro				
Agricultural implements and vehicles	\$7.13	.....	\$7.26	\$7.23	\$7.12	\$7.17
Boots and shoes.....	7.98	(a)	8.60	8.21	7.89	8.16
Clothing ....	7.41	(a)	8.85	8.54	7.74	8.02
Collars, cuffs, and shirts..	7.47	(a)	7.78	7.61	7.77	7.63
Cotton goods..	8.34	(a)	7.96	8.06	7.93	7.97
Glasstableware	5.61	.....	5.71	5.66	5.14	5.51
Gloves .....	6.37	(a)	6.88	6.44	6.55	6.46
Leather .....	7.13	.....	7.39	7.28	6.39	6.87
Silk goods...	7.36	.....	7.24	7.28	8.57	7.66
Woolen and worsted g'ds	8.35	(a)	8.61	8.52	7.96	8.18
Total ....	7.91	6.80	8.11	8.04	7.90	7.96

14 and under 18 years of age.

Agricultural implements and vehicles	(a)	.....	\$6.68	\$6.69	\$6.65	\$6.67
Boots and shoes .....	\$5.21	(a)	5.63	5.35	6.31	5.43
Clothing .....	5.02	.....	5.23	5.21	5.80	5.47
Collars, cuffs, and shirts..	4.78	.....	5.07	4.89	6.29	5.02
Cotton goods..	6.01	.....	6.12	6.09	6.17	6.12
Glasstableware	4.18	.....	4.14	4.15	4.53	4.21
Gloves .....	4.63	.....	(a)	4.66	.....	4.66
Leather .....	5.78	.....	5.83	5.81	5.35	5.69
Silk goods...	4.13	.....	4.07	4.08	4.32	4.12
Woolen and worsted g'ds	6.12	(a)	6.23	6.19	6.09	6.16
Total .....	5.25	(a)	5.31	5.29	5.85	5.46

a Not computed, owing to small number involved.

\* This table shows wages or earnings for the period indicated, but no account is taken of voluntarily lost time or lost time from shut-downs or other causes. In the various tables in this report showing annual earnings allowance is made for time lost during the year.

manufacturing establishments, and the lowest, \$5.66, by the workers in glass tableware factories. Of the total number of women wage-earners of foreign birth, the highest average amount of weekly earnings, \$8.57, is shown by silk-mill operatives, and the lowest, \$5.14, by those employed in the manufacture of glass tableware.

The average weekly earnings for all female employees fourteen and under eighteen years of age are only \$5.46. Among both the native-born and foreign-born females who were working for wages the highest average weekly earnings are shown by those employed in connection with the manufacture of agricultural implements and vehicles, and the lowest by silk-mill operatives.

Average weekly earnings are not available by general nativity for employees of oil refineries, cigar and tobacco factories, slaughtering and meat-packing establishments, bituminous coal mines, and temporary or railroad and other construction work. The table which appears on p. 163, however, shows for these industries, according to general nativity, the average daily earnings of male employees who were eighteen years of age or over, and of those who were fourteen but under eighteen years of age. In the first age-group are 138,375 wage-earners and in the second 7,363.

Upon comparing the wage-earners eighteen years of age or over according to industries, it is seen that native-born whites of native father have the highest average daily earnings in the oil-refining establishments, followed, in the order named, by those engaged in construction work, bituminous coal mining, slaughtering and meat packing, and cigar and tobacco manufacturing. Of the industrial workers native-born of

AVERAGE AMOUNT OF DAILY EARNINGS OF MALE EMPLOYEES, BY GENERAL NATIVITY AND INDUSTRY\*

18 years of age or over.

INDUSTRY	Native-born			Total native-born	Foreign-born	Total
	Native father		Foreign father			
	White	Negro				
Cigars and tobacco	\$1.97	\$1.23	\$2.20	\$1.72	\$2.21	\$1.92
Coal mining (bituminous) ..	2.31	1.98	2.38	2.25	2.16	2.19
Construction work	2.43	1.80	2.81	2.23	1.68	1.81
Oil refining.....	2.77	(a)	2.74	2.75	2.42	2.51
Slaughtering and meat packing..	2.21	2.05	2.27	2.20	1.95	2.04
Total .....	2.24	1.77	2.33	2.15	2.09	2.11

14 and under 18 years of age.

Cigars and tobacco	\$0.97	\$0.77	\$1.25	\$0.93	\$1.73	\$1.07
Coal mining (bituminous) ..	1.51	1.24	1.57	1.51	1.65	1.54
Construction work	1.38	1.34	(a)	1.38	1.49	1.45
Oil refining.....	(a)	.....	1.16	1.17	1.22	1.19
Slaughtering and meat packing..	1.42	1.50	1.40	1.42	1.47	1.43
Total .....	1.31	.99	1.48	1.31	1.63	1.38

a Not computed, owing to small number involved.

\* This table shows wages or earnings for the period indicated, but no account is taken of voluntarily lost time or lost time from shut-downs or other causes. In the various tables in this report showing annual earnings allowance is made for time lost during the year.

foreign father, the highest average daily earnings are shown in construction work, followed by oil-refining, bituminous coal mining, slaughtering and meat packing, and cigar and tobacco manufacturing in the order named. In the case of the foreign-born wage-earners, the highest earnings are exhibited by those employed in oil refining, followed in consecutive order by those engaged in the manufacture of cigars and tobacco, bituminous coal mining, slaughtering and meat packing, and construction work. Of those employed in cigar and tobacco factories, the foreign-born show an average daily wage of \$2.21, as compared with \$1.97 for the native white workers of native father, and

\$2.20 for the native-born of foreign father. In the case of the bituminous coal-mine workers, an average daily wage of \$2.19 is shown for the whole industry, \$2.16 for the foreign-born workers, \$2.38 for the native-born of foreign father, and \$2.31 for the white miners of native birth and of native father. In the oil-refining plants and slaughtering and meat-packing establishments, the native-born wage-earners show considerably higher average daily earnings than do those of foreign birth.

Of the male employees fourteen and under eighteen years of age, the foreign-born exhibit the highest average daily earnings, \$1.65, in the bituminous coal mines, and the lowest, \$1.22, in the oil refineries. The total native-born also exhibit the highest average daily earnings, amounting to \$1.51 in the bituminous coal mines, and the lowest, \$0.93 per day, in the manufacture of cigars and tobacco.

The table on p. 165 shows, by general nativity, for the same industries, the average daily earnings of 14,416 female employees eighteen years of age or over, and of 4,224 who were fourteen and under eighteen years of age.

The average daily earnings exhibited by the female industrial workers eighteen years of age or over are \$1.16. The native-born women show their highest average daily earnings, \$1.37, in connection with the oil-refining industry, and the lowest, \$1.13, among those employed in cigar and tobacco factories. The average for the total number of women of foreign birth is \$1.20 a day in the two branches of manufacturing for which the averages have been computed.

As regards the female wage-earners fourteen and under eighteen years of age, the average daily earn-

ings are \$0.93. The maximum for the native-born females is \$1.11, which is earned by those employed in oil refineries, and the minimum is \$0.89, which is shown by employees of the cigar and tobacco factories. The foreign-born females in this age-group show the highest daily earnings of \$1.10 in the slaughtering and meat-packing industry and the lowest, of \$1.05, in the manufacture of cigars and tobacco.

AVERAGE AMOUNT OF DAILY EARNINGS OF FEMALE EMPLOYEES, BY GENERAL NATIVITY AND INDUSTRY\*

18 years of age or over.

INDUSTRY	Native-born			Total native-born	Foreign-born	Total
	Native father		Foreign father			
	White	Negro				
Cigars and tobacco	\$1.25	\$0.76	\$1.31	\$1.13	\$1.20	\$1.15
Oil refining.....	(a)	.....	1.37	1.37	(a)	1.36
Slaughtering and meat packing..	1.19	1.09	1.19	1.19	1.20	1.20
Total .....	1.25	.77	1.29	1.13	1.20	1.16

14 and under 18 years of age.

Cigars and tobacco	\$0.92	\$0.60	\$0.94	\$0.89	\$1.05	\$0.92
Oil refining.....	.....	.....	1.11	1.11	(a)	1.13
Slaughtering and meat packing..	1.02	(a)	.99	1.00	1.10	1.03
Total .....	.93	.60	.95	.90	1.06	.93

a Not computed, owing to small number involved.

\* This table shows wages or earnings for the period indicated, but no account is taken of voluntarily lost time or lost time from shut-downs or other causes. In the various tables in this report showing annual earnings allowance is made for time lost during the year.

*Annual Earnings, According to Race, Age and Sex*

The earnings of recent immigrants and other industrial workers which have already been shown represent, as it were, an instantaneous view of the situation. They cover only a short period and no

allowance is made for lost time arising from causes affecting the individual workman or the industry in which he may be employed. The wage-earner, or some member of his family, may be ill, or he may meet with an accident which may cause an absence from work. Employment may be curtailed through business depression, labor dissensions, or other causes. For these reasons it is only when an extended period of time is taken into consideration that the real status of the industrial worker may be ascertained. The following table is therefore presented, which shows, by general nativity, the approximate average annual earnings of 26,616 adult male wage-earners who were engaged in different branches of mining and manufacturing:

	Total Number	Average Annual Earnings
Native-Born of Native Father—		
White .....	1,454	\$666
Negro .....	165	445
Native-Born of Foreign Father..	2,059	566
Total Native-Born .....	3,678	600
Total Foreign-Born .....	22,938	455
Grand Total.....	26,616	475

Upon comparing the totals of the nativity groups, it is seen that the average annual earnings of the 22,938 adult foreign-born male wage-earners were only \$455, as contrasted with average yearly earnings of \$566 for the 2,059 industrial workers of native birth but of foreign father, and of \$666 for the 1,454 native-born white American wage-earners. Only a small percentage of the last-named group were earning under \$400 annually, while the greater proportion were earning between \$600 and \$1,000 per year. On



the other hand, the greater number of male wage-earners, either of native birth and of foreign father or of foreign birth, were receiving as a result of their labor less than \$600 per annum. It is a striking fact that of the total number of foreign-born male wage-earners 77.9 per cent. were receiving under \$600 per year, and 43.5 per cent. under \$400. Only 1.9 per cent. of the foreign-born males earned more than \$1,000 a year, as contrasted with 6.6 per cent. of the native-born wage-earners of foreign father, and 11.4 per cent. of the native-born white persons of native father, or native Americans. The earning ability of the foreign-born wage-earners of past immigration from Great Britain and northern Europe is considerably greater than that of recent immigrants from southern and eastern Europe.

The yearly earnings of the female wage-earners are considerably lower than those of the men. This fact is set forth in the next table, which shows, by general nativity, the approximate average annual earnings of 3,609 females who were eighteen years of age or over and who were employed for wages outside the home:

	Total Number	Average Annual Earnings
Native-Born of Native Father—		
White .....	338	\$365
Negro .....	10	106
Native-Born of Foreign Father.	875	339
<hr/>		<hr/>
Total Native-Born.....	1,223	344
Total Foreign-Born.....	2,386	284
<hr/>		<hr/>
Grand Total.....	3,609	304

The average annual earnings, as shown in the foregoing table, for the 3,609 females who were working

for wages, were \$304. The earnings of the foreign-born women were much lower than those of the native-born, and the earnings of the native-born white women of native father were somewhat higher than those of the native-born of foreign father. A large proportion of the foreign-born women, or 26.4 per cent., earned less than \$200 per annum, and the greater number of female wage-earners of foreign birth, or 54.8 per cent., earned under \$300 annually. Only 19.1 per cent. of the women of foreign birth who were working for wages received more than \$400 a year, as compared with 31.4 per cent. of the women of native birth but of foreign father, and 35.8 per cent. of the native American women. The lowest earnings are exhibited by the females of races of southern and eastern Europe.

#### ANNUAL EARNINGS OF MALE HEADS OF FAMILIES

The male heads of families, while showing a low range of annual earnings, exhibit a somewhat greater earning capacity than the industrial workers as a whole. The males of native birth who are married and who are heads of families also have a higher range of annual earnings than those of foreign birth. The greater proportion of the former earn yearly between \$400 and \$800, while the greater number of the latter earn between \$300 and \$600. Of the heads of families who were white native-born employees of native father, or native Americans, about one-half earn between \$500 and \$800 per annum. In the lower ranges of annual earnings the heads of families who were born abroad have a much larger proportion than those of native birth, while in the higher ranges

of annual earnings the situation is reversed. Less than 3 per cent. of the foreign-born heads of families, as compared with 13 per cent. of the total native-born and 14 per cent. of those of the second generation of immigrants, have yearly earnings in excess of \$1,000. On the other hand, only about one-eighth of the total native-born heads of families, and one-tenth of the white industrial workers of native birth and native father, as contrasted with slightly more than one-third of the total number of foreign birth, earn under \$400 each year. The races of old immigration from Great Britain and northern Europe also have a higher range of annual earnings than have those of recent immigration from southern and eastern Europe.

### *Annual Family Income*

The meager earnings of the married industrial workers, both of native and of foreign birth, are not sufficient to meet the needs of their families. This fact is shown by the following table, which sets forth the average amount of the annual income of 15,726 families, the heads of which were wage-earners in mines and manufacturing establishments. The presentation is by general nativity of heads of families.

	Number of Families Included	Average Amount Family Income
<b>Native-Born of Native Father—</b>		
White .....	1,070	\$865
Negro .....	124	517
<b>Native-Born of Foreign Father.</b>	707	866
<b>Total Native-Born.....</b>	<b>1,901</b>	<b>843</b>
<b>Total Foreign-Born.....</b>	<b>13,825</b>	<b>101</b>
<b>Grand Total.....</b>	<b>15,726</b>	<b>721</b>

## SOURCES OF FAMILY INCOME

The most significant fact developed by the foregoing table, as may be readily seen from a comparison with the table showing annual earnings, is that the family income is much larger than the yearly earnings of male heads of families. As a matter of fact, present-day industrial families in the United States find it necessary to add to the earnings of the husbands through the employment of wives and children outside the home and the keeping of boarders and lodgers within the home. The native American and older immigrant employees maintain an independent form of family life, but the earnings of the heads are supplemented by the wages of the wives and children. On the other hand, the southern and eastern European families have recourse to the keeping of boarders and lodgers as a supplementary source of family income. This condition of affairs is shown by the table on p. 171, which sets forth, by general nativity of head of family, the proportion of 15,704 families who derive their income from the sources specified.

One of the most striking contrasts exhibited by this table is the greater dependence of foreign-born than of native-born families upon the earnings of wives and children. Of the latter 60.3 per cent., and of the former only 38 per cent., rely entirely upon the wages of the head of the family for their support. The totals as to the proportion of families having an income from contributions of husbands and children are about the same in the case of each nativity group, the large extent to which children in the families of the races of old immigration contribute to the family support doubtless offsetting the almost entire lack of

# SOURCE OF FAMILY INCOME IN DETAIL, BY GENERAL NATIVITY AND RACE OF HEAD OF FAMILY

[This table includes only races with 20 or more families reporting. The totals, however, are for all races. Twenty-two families are excluded which report income as "none."]

GENERAL NATIVITY AND RACE OF HEAD OF FAMILY	Number of families in- cluded	Per cent. of families having entire income from—											
		Husband	Husband and wife	Husband and chil- dren	Husband, wife, and children	Husband and board- ers or lodgers	Wife	Wife and children	Wife and boarders or lodgers	Children	Children and board- ers or lodgers	Boarders or lodgers	Source or combina- tion of sources not before specified
Native-Born of Native Father....	1,070	58.4	3.1	14.0	0.5	6.7	0.3	1.0	0.2	1.6	0.2	0.0	14.0
White .....	124	71.0	4.0	5.6	.0	4.0	.0	.0	.0	.8	.8	.0	13.7
Negro .....													
Total Native-Born of Foreign Father .....	706	61.3	3.0	11.2	.4	6.7	.6	.7	.1	1.4	.4	.1	14.0
Total Native-Born .....	1,900	60.3	3.1	12.4	.4	6.5	.4	.8	.2	1.5	.3	.1	14.0
Total Foreign-Born .....	13,804	38.0	3.9	12.8	.5	25.5	.2	.4	.1	1.4	.6	.3	16.2
Grand Total .....	15,704	40.7	3.8	12.7	.5	23.2	.2	.5	.1	1.4	.5	.3	15.9

such source of income in case of the families of southern and eastern European immigrants.

The fact already mentioned as to the dependence of families the heads of which are immigrants upon the contributions of boarders or lodgers, is strikingly set forth in the table. Of the foreign-born families, about one-fourth, or 25.5 per cent., as contrasted with only 6.5 per cent. of the total native-born, have an income entirely from husbands and boarders or lodgers. As regards the families of the several races, the tendencies exhibited may be more quickly seen by the division of the families the heads of which were foreign-born into two groups, according to whether the heads were of old immigration or of recent arrival in the United States. In making this division only the principal races and sources of income are considered.

The comparison on p. 171 emphasizes the differences already noted in the discussion of the nativity groups. It is worthy of note, however, that the families or members of races of old immigration from Great Britain and northern Europe receive a greater proportion of the family income from the earnings of heads, the contributions of children, and miscellaneous sources, while the southern and eastern Europeans derive their income mainly from the earnings of husbands and the contributions of boarders or lodgers. That contributions of children are less general in families of recent immigration is probably due to the fact that children of these households have not in any considerable proportions reached working age. The fact that a larger proportion of old than of more recent immigrant families depend upon sources of income other than those specified arises from the fact that they have been in the United States for a longer



period of time, and have consequently entered into more diversified occupations. The significant feature of the situation is, however, that the families of all classes of industrial workers find it necessary, in order to secure a sufficient income for living expenses, to have their children go to work at an early age, or to abandon the natural independence of family life by taking boarders or lodgers into the home.

### OLD AND NEW IMMIGRATION COMPARED

*With respect to source of family income of the foreign-born, by race*

RACE	Per cent. of families having entire income from—			
	Husband	Husband and children	Husband and boarders or lodgers	Unspecified sources
Old Immigration:				
Canadian, French .....	32.7	29.6	6.3	14.3
English .....	41.3	25.9	7.1	14.6
German .....	37.3	22.6	9.6	23.2
Irish .....	33.2	26.5	6.4	20.0
Norwegian .....	46.2	26.9	.0	19.2
Scotch .....	38.2	26.0	4.1	26.0
Welsh .....	35.6	26.7	2.2	26.7
New Immigration:				
Armenian .....	29.6	8.2	14.3	27.6
Brava .....	69.0	.0	10.3	13.8
Croatian .....	34.3	3.8	52.0	8.4
Cuban .....	51.2	14.0	9.3	11.6
Greek .....	38.8	8.2	18.4	16.3
Hebrew .....	54.4	17.7	13.9	9.7
Italian, North .....	41.0	7.4	27.3	17.8
Italian, South .....	39.7	9.3	26.5	14.2
Lithuanian .....	28.7	5.0	43.7	19.7
Magyar .....	32.1	4.8	43.5	14.3
Polish .....	85.8	8.5	37.7	13.2
Portuguese .....	29.5	14.3	7.4	26.4
Rumanian .....	20.3	.0	65.2	11.6
Russian .....	43.4	2.6	46.1	6.6
Ruthenian .....	27.8	5.8	41.7	15.6
Servian .....	8.6	.0	79.3	5.2
Slovak .....	44.0	7.8	29.3	14.7
Slovenian .....	48.5	9.2	29.4	6.1
Syrian .....	28.9	9.9	16.2	14.8

The material in the preceding paragraphs is designed to set forth merely the facts relative to wage-earners and their families. After the condition of another group of industrial workers—the floating immigrant labor supply—has been shown, an interpretation of these facts will be presented.\*

\* See chapter XI, The Immigrant as a Dynamic Factor in American Industry.

## X

### THE FLOATING IMMIGRANT LABOR SUPPLY

The recent immigrant has not only found extensive lodgment in the operating forces of the principal branches of mining and manufacturing in the United States, but the laborers for railway and other construction, as well as for other kinds of seasonal and temporary work, are largely recruited from members of races of recent immigration originating in southern and eastern Europe. The same statement is true of the workmen on railroad maintenance-of-way. A study, in the year 1909, of the employees in the maintenance-of-way department east of the Ohio River of one of our most important railroads showed that about 54 per cent. were of foreign birth, and that the principal races employed were Croatians and North and South Italians. Moreover, about 64 per cent. of the laborers of these races had been in the United States less than five years. Even the South, which in former years depended almost entirely upon the negro for this class of work, has found it necessary to employ immigrant labor, owing to its extensive development during the past decade.\*

#### *Methods of Securing Work*

The principal methods by which the immigrant laborer secures employment in temporary work are: (1) by personal application; (2) by the padrone system; and (3) through labor agencies. The method

\* Seasonal labor in agriculture is discust in Chapter VI.

first mentioned is seldom followed, the only places where it is employed being those in which the construction or other work, because of its extent or by reason of the regular recurrence of demand, is a matter of common knowledge.

#### LABOR AGENCIES

As a rule, the demand for and the supply of labor are adjusted through a system of regularly constituted agencies. These labor agencies are located in the different cities of the country and cooperate one with another in adjusting the supply of labor to the distribution of the demand. They are either independent institutions, or are operated in conjunction with immigrant banks, steamship ticket offices, or other lines of business. The usual movement of the immigrant labor supply is from New York to the recognized industrial centers of the interior, where the larger number of immigrants seeking work find employment in regularly established industries. The demand for railway construction and other temporary labor is then largely supplied by the agencies in the interior, by means of laborers secured from the immigrant colonies of the industrial cities or towns. When one piece of work is completed, the laborers usually return to the point from which they originally started, and are again distributed by the agencies. In many cases, however, the newly arrived immigrant is sent directly from New York to railroad or other construction work.

The principal points in the interior in which the labor agencies operate, and which are the centers of distribution of the floating immigrant labor supply, are Buffalo, Pittsburgh, Cleveland, Cincinnati, St. Louis, Kansas City, Chicago, St. Paul and Duluth. A great

many of the labor agencies have contracts with the railroads to furnish them with all the labor needed. In cases of this kind the laborer pays an office fee and is given free transportation to the place where he is to begin work. Where the employment is not directly connected with some railroad, transportation may or may not be furnished. If it is not furnished free, the laborer usually secures a very much reduced rate. If he has not the money necessary to pay this charge, it is advanced by the labor agent, who, by a contract with the employer, has it deducted from the laborer's first month's pay.

Reputable labor agents always inspect the work for which they are to furnish men, unless they already know the character of the company or men with whom they are dealing. The exploitation of immigrants seems to be carried on almost entirely by the padrones or leaders of the various gangs which seek work. Labor agencies claim that frequently when they advertise for men to go to work in a certain place the padrones advise the immigrants not to take the jobs. The padrone then comes to the labor agent and tells him that he will supply a certain number of men, but that they can only pay, say, \$1.00, instead of \$2.00, the regular fee. The labor agent must have the men in order to fill his contracts, and consequently he accepts the terms. The labor agent is also powerless to prevent the men from leaving their work before a sufficient amount has been earned to reimburse him for advancing their transportation. The padrones may also, in order to collect double fees or to make better terms, persuade their gangs to quit work for one contractor and secure employment with another. Through these methods, both the labor agencies and the con-

tractors or employers in times of scarcity of labor incur heavy losses and undergo vexatious delays.

In the Middle West and Northwest, labor agencies are almost exclusively used by the railroads in securing labor. Especially is this true of races other than the Italian, who are usually secured through the padrone system. The agencies generally have contracts with the railroads and send out the labor in an intelligent, systematic way, but it often happens that a number of small agencies having no contracts with the railroads or contractors will hear of work and all rush men to the same place, with the result that many of the men are left on their own resources to get back to the cities where they can again apply to the agencies.

Early in the season the men present themselves to the agencies for registration, for which they are usually charged \$2.00, the maximum legal fee. In the order of registration they are shipped off in gangs when the demands come in from the railroads. Before a month has passed some of the first gangs may begin returning, and they are then sent out again. Sometimes they are not returned all the way to the city from which they originally started, but are transported from where they were discharged, or gave up their places on account of various hardships or because the work ceased, to other points where they may be reemployed. This circulation is encouraged, for at each shift the men pay the agencies. When the supply of men runs low, toward the end of the season, the agencies sometimes cooperate. One may have an order for a large gang which it can not fill on short notice. It solicits help from other agencies and they divide the profits. Some do this continually. One agency in Chicago,



that handles Bulgarians exclusively, has not at times been able to get large contracts from the railroads. It must therefore divide its gains with some larger agency which has succeeded in getting contracts. On the other hand, there is every reason to believe that the large agency in its turn pays heavily for its contracts, so that the secondary agencies lose not so much as at first seems.

There are two distinct movements to the Northwest during the year: in the spring the labor gangs move westward, especially northwestward, to points beginning in the Chicago suburbs and extending into Minnesota, the two Dakotas, Iowa and Montana. In August and September a lull in the labor-agency business occurs. In October the men begin swarming back to Chicago, those who can afford it to winter in the colonies. The Bulgarians return to Granite City, Illinois, altho there is also a colony of them in Chicago. Then the agencies are busy sending gangs southward into Kansas, Missouri, Mississippi and Louisiana. One agency in Chicago has a permanent contract with three different railroads. The Southwest movement is not so heavy, partly because many of the immigrants prefer wintering in the cities, and the construction work in the South is not so seasonal in its nature, and also because there are large cities, such as Cincinnati, Pittsburgh and New York, nearer than Chicago from which immigrant labor can also be drawn.

#### THE PADRONE SYSTEM

The padrone system is the outgrowth of the inability to speak English, and of the lack of knowledge of American methods and customs, which prevail among

the immigrant laborers who seek employment. Some form of the system is found among all non-English-speaking races. It is most highly developed, however, and is most usually followed, by the South Italians. In the majority of cases the *padrone* is a labor agent, who agrees to furnish and control a certain supply of labor for a specified work, in return for which he is to receive certain privileges, as, for example, the commissary or housing privileges in a railway or other construction camp. In other cases he acts merely as the representative of the laborers in negotiations with employers or other persons, and for this service each laborer in his gang regularly pays him the specified and understood amount.

#### *Racial Classification of Railroad and Other Construction Laborers*

Disregarding geographical lines, it may be said, in general, that foreign-born wage-earners constitute slightly more than three-fourths of the entire number of persons engaged in railway and other construction work. Native white Americans and native negroes each make up about one-tenth of the working forces. The remaining part consists of English, Irish, Germans and persons of native birth but of foreign father. Thirty-seven races were represented among the immigrant wage-earners of this class investigated by the Immigration Commission. Scarcely any English or Germans are found in the railroad construction camps, but a small proportion of Irish, amounting to 2.4 per cent. of the entire operating forces, are in supervisory and responsible positions. Of the recent immigrants the South Italians, North Italians, Croa-

tians, Poles and Greeks, in the order named, are employed in the greatest numbers. The South Italians, as a rule, constitute about one-third of the unskilled workers, the North Italians and Croatians each one-tenth, and the Greeks, Poles and Bulgarians about one-twentieth each. Other races which appear in small numbers are the Russians, Rumanians, Magyars and Herzegovinians. In all sections of the country, the South Italians form the highest proportion of laborers employed on railroad construction work. The Bulgarians, Greeks and Rumanians are principally employed in the Middle West, Northwest, South and Southwest. The Slovaks, Russians, Poles, Magyars, Lithuanians and Herzegovinians are almost exclusively at work in the Eastern States. The Croatians are found in largest proportions in the East and the Middle West, and the North Italians in the Eastern and Southern States. About one-third of all the employees in the South are native negroes.

### *Period of Residence of Immigrant Workmen in the United States*

Most of the Southern and Eastern European construction workers are of recent arrival in the United States. About three-fourths of all the races combined, and all of the Herzegovinians and Rumanians, have been in this country less than five years. This period of residence applies in the East and Middle West to about 85 per cent. of the Croatians; in the East and South to more than three-fifths of the North Italians; and in the East, Middle West and South to from 71 per cent. to 86.1 per cent. of the South Italians. The laborers of more recent arrival in the United States

have usually been first employed in the East and South and have afterward moved westward.

### *Earnings*

A study of more than 5,000 wage-earners in all sections of the country showed that the average daily earnings of native white Americans were \$2.43 and of immigrants \$1.68. The highest average daily earnings of any race of southern and eastern Europe were shown by the North Italians, the members of this race earning on an average \$1.86 each day, while no other recent immigrants had average daily earnings in excess of \$1.59. The Irish of foreign birth averaged \$2.33 per diem. Excepting the North Italians, very few southern and eastern Europeans, as contrasted with native white Americans and British and northern European immigrants, appeared in the groups of those earning \$2.00 or over per day. More than three-tenths of the native white Americans and more than one-fourth of the Irish of foreign birth, as against only one-twentieth of the recent immigrant employees, earned \$3.00 or more each day. About one-tenth of the native Americans and foreign-born Irish, about two-tenths of the native-born Irish and practically none of the recent immigrants, showed daily earnings in excess of \$4.00. Three-fifths of the immigrant laborers in the East, South and Southwest, and more than four-fifths of those in the Middle West and Northwest, earned as much as \$1.50 each. On the other hand, none of the southern and eastern Europeans in the Middle West, only 11.8 per cent. of those in the South and Southwest, and 29 per cent. of those in the Eastern States, earned \$2.00 or more each day.

*Characteristics of the Labor Supply*

The recent immigrant laborers are marked by a high degree of illiteracy. More than two-fifths, 44 per cent., could not read or write. The greatest illiteracy was exhibited by the Croatians and South Italians, of whom more than one-half could not read in any language.

Fifty-five per cent. of the immigrant wage-earners were married, but more than three-fourths of these had left their wives and families in their native countries. Practically all of the married Bulgarians, Greeks and Rumanians had migrated to this country without their wives and children. About three-fifths of the immigrant employees were under thirty years of age.

As regards the small extent to which the southern and eastern Europeans exhibit any tendency toward progress and assimilation, it was found that practically none of the recent immigrants except the North and South Italians, and only one-tenth of these, were fully naturalized. Moreover, only about one-third of the wage-earners of foreign birth could speak English. In the case of some races the proportion was much smaller, only about 12 per cent. of the Russians and Rumanians, 8 per cent. of the Bulgarians, and about 6 per cent. of the Herzegovinians being able to speak the English language.

*Housing and Living Conditions in the West*

Housing and living conditions vary little even among the various communities in the Middle West and Northwest. Freight cars in railroad construction and maintenance work fitted up inside with



from eight to ten bunks, are used as sleeping quarters. Separate cars are used as kitchens and as dining-rooms. The bunks in the sleeping cars are roughly put together, four in either end of each car. There is usually a table in the space in the middle where the men play cards and sometimes eat instead of in the regular mess car. Even with ten men in one car, they could not be described as crowded.

The kitchen car is fitted with a range, tables, an ice-chest, and numerous lockers in which the provisions are kept. The cook or cooks sleep here in one end of the car, and sometimes an interpreter is with them. The mess car is always next to the kitchen. Through its entire length, in the middle, runs a plain board table, a bench of equal length on either side, with lockers on the walls where the tableware is kept. Usually these cars are found to be neatly kept, for this is the business of the cooks (about one to each thirty men), and they have no work other than this and their cooking. There is always drinking water in plenty, supplied in buckets by the water boys, iced when spring water is not available.

The Greeks and Italians are the most unclean in their living arrangements. The Italians are fond of decorative effects, hanging out flags and gaily-colored rags, and sometimes the outsides of their cars are lined with growing plants in boxes.

The camps are on sidings, ladders being raised to the open doorways. So long as the work is within a few miles of the camp, the car is not moved, the men traveling to and fro on hand cars; but when necessary, a switch-engine appears and hauls the entire camp to the next siding, or switch, causing the men no other inconvenience than, in case of those who bake



their own bread, the building of a new bake oven—a small cave in an embankment or hillside often furnishing ample convenience.

Each gang is a racial unit, living in separate cars and usually in a separate camp. Sometimes Bulgarians and Croatians, Croatians and Rumanians and Italians, were found in the same camp, but it seemed that Greeks could not live peaceably with any other race. Croatians and Bulgarians, speaking practically the same language, fraternize readily; but Bulgarians and Rumanians must be kept apart from Greeks, both of the former being secessionists from the Church of the Greek Patriarch, with tendencies anti-fraternal in high degree.

Everywhere the men pay their own living expenses. The companies pay the wages of the cooks, equal to those of the laborers. Fuel, sometimes old ties, sometimes coal, sometimes both, is supplied free. The cooking ranges and the kitchen utensils are bought by the men. The average amount put into the common living fund by each laborer is from \$6 to \$10 a month. The Croatians seem to live most generously; the Greeks and Bulgarians most plainly. The reputation of the Croatians among the foremen for generous living may rest, however, more on their propensity to use liquor. Only they of all the races are not sober, tho their sprees are periodical rather than continuous. But even the Bulgarians, said to be the most sober, have acquired the almost universal habit of beer drinking.

### *Working and Living Conditions in the South*

The houses occupied by the laborers on construction work throughout the South are of cheap construction and built for only temporary use. The mild climate

does not require houses as closely built as are needed farther north, and tents are often used when the work is of short duration. The houses most frequently seen are shanties built of rough lumber and covered with tar paper. In building them cheapness is the governing principle. A frame-work of scantling is set up, on which boards are nailed vertically, forming the sides, which may or may not be covered with tar paper. Sometimes there are no floors, and the foundation on which the shanty rests is a pile of flat stones or of ends of planks placed under each corner. They are about eight feet high from the floor to the eaves, fourteen feet wide, and from fourteen to sixty feet long. They usually have a comb roof of about four feet pitch, which gives more air space than the flat tops which are more rarely found. Bunks built one above the other, against the walls, serve as beds, while a stove in the center furnishes both cooking and heating accommodations. All bedding is supplied by the men, and consists in most cases of a pile of straw, obtained from a nearby farm, sometimes in a filthy case, and often lying loose in the bunk.

From twenty to thirty men occupy a bunk-house fifty feet long. Cooking is done on the stoves in the houses in winter; in summer out-of-doors, or in little huts built by the men themselves. Where the work is double-tracking, box cars placed on a temporary track near the work and fitted up as camp cars are used. These cars have a stove in the center, a double deck of berths at either end, and windows about eighteen inches square are cut in either side. In the cases where a married man, usually a foreman, is among the immigrants, the house is of a better grade. Altho built of the same material as the shanties, they are more closely

built and are usually lined with paper. The general plan followed is a three-room, one-story house, one room being used for cooking and dining, and the remaining two as living and sleeping-rooms.

The majority of the immigrants do their own cooking, each man for himself, or else they form groups of five to ten, and the men take turns in doing the cooking for the others in the group. There are a few boarding places on the American plan, but these are rare, and are always where there is a foreign foreman with his family on the work. An occasional boarding group is found where all the men buy their own provisions, each man for himself, having it cooked by the woman who conducts the house, and who charges the men \$2.50 for cooking and washing. This custom is found more widely among the Croatians. Of all the different methods, individual cooking is the most prevalent. The cost of living is about \$10 per man for the Croatians, for a month, and the same for the Slovaks, and from \$5 to \$7 for the Italians. The Italians live mainly upon bread, macaroni and bologna sausage, which accounts for the extremely low cost of their maintenance. At their noon meal, on the work, a whole gang may be seen eating simply a loaf of bread and a pickle or a piece of bologna sausage. At night they cook a stew made of macaroni, tamales, and potatoes and a small scrap of meat. For breakfast they have bread and coffee and bologna sausage. When not working the majority of the Italians eat only two meals a day. The other foreign races eat meat for both supper and breakfast in addition to a good deal of canned food.

*The Commissary in Southern Camps*

The commissary, on construction work in the South, is an important part of the industry. In many cases the whole profit is from this source. In former years, when the negro was practically the only laborer, it was not unusual for a contractor to take work at cost, or even less, depending on the commissary for his profits. As the foreign laborer has been substituted for the negro, this custom has become less and less prevalent, as its existence depends upon the expenditures of the laborers. Many of the larger Southern contracting firms have abandoned the commissary as a source of profit, since employing foreigners, and maintain it only as a convenience. This has given an opening for the padrones, who are becoming more and more numerous in Southern construction work. The negroes are by far the best customers in the commissary. They are generally unmarried men with no responsibilities, roaming from one place to another, spending their entire earnings in the commissary. They often cash the wages due them at a discount, and then spend the money before leaving the commissary. The Croatians are good liveries in comparison with the other foreign races, and they do not stint themselves in food or drink. The negroes spend their surplus, above what is needed for food, for gaudy clothes and patent-leather shoes, but the Croatians spend theirs for beer, or for such substitute for that beverage as may be had at the commissary. Altho extravagant, they do not spend so much as the negroes, who loiter about the commissaries looking for something for which to spend their money. The Croatians know what they want and buy it freely, but if there is a surplus of their wages it is

saved. The Italians, living as they do, very cheaply, buy little from the commissaries.

In a general way the laborers are required to patronize the commissaries. If a wholesale boycott of the commissaries by the laborers were to take place, there is no doubt that they would be replaced by others who would patronize the stores. In localities where other stores are convenient there is a good deal of buying at these other stores, especially when labor is scarcer than work, and the men feel more independent. The men, both negroes and foreigners, understand that they will be more likely to be employed on other work if they deal at the commissaries instead of at other stores. In isolated districts, where no other stores are convenient, the men must necessarily patronize the commissaries altho the prices are high. The chief method of securing the patronage of the laborers is that of "paying off." The men are paid only once a month. This of itself has a great deal of influence in the direction of extravagance. A man coming into camp on the first of the month will not be paid until about the 20th of the following month. He must have food and clothes and is credited for only as much as is due him on the time books, unless he be an old employee who has worked for the company before and can be trusted. If he should leave before pay-day, his time is cashed with 10 per cent. deducted, or he may take it in supplies at the commissary, subject to no discount from what is due him.

#### DETENTION PRACTISES

The detention of laborers in the camps is practised to some extent wherever the contractor advances transportation for men brought on the work. While the



practise is generally applied to the transportation men, it is sometimes indulged in also when men who are leaving are badly needed to continue the work. The chief methods have been: (1) through the local authorities, and (2) by armed guards. The method of having the escaping men arrested on the charge of violating the boarding-house law is the safest to the contractors and most frequently used. Laborers are frequently brought to the work on free transportation, having made an agreement to work out their indebtedness. After getting to the neighborhood in which the work is being done, they leave the contractor who brought them in and work for another company where they do not have the cost of their transportation deducted from their wages. In order to protect themselves against this practise, the contractors have the men arrested and confronted with a jail sentence when attempting to leave. They are then willing to remain and work out their indebtedness. Sometimes in the more isolated camps the men are closely watched by the foreman and other bosses, who carry arms, and are driven back and shut up in their shanties and held until they agree to return to work; or their baggage may be taken from them and held until they have worked themselves free from debt. These practises are more in evidence during the periods of special activity in construction work, as these men are more often offered transportation in advance, and after getting into the neighborhood are better able to find other work.

Similar practices amounting technically to criminal peonage have been found in nearly all the states.



*Southern Employer's Preference for Labor*

The order in which the labor is classed as to preference by the Southern contractor is: (1) negroes, (2) Croatians, and (3) all others except Italians. In point of numbers the Italians exceed by far any other foreign race on construction work in this region, with the Croatians coming second. The other foreign races are so sparsely represented that the comparisons are made between only these three. Negroes are everywhere preferred to members of any other race. They are good teamsters, and are used as wagon-drivers and in all cases requiring the control of more than a single mule. Altho they do not work regularly, it is said that while working only four-fifths of the time they do more work than the foreigners working full time. A contractor employing negro labor keeps a full camp at all times, thereby assuring himself a full force. After each pay-day there is a considerable falling off of the negro labor for two or three days, during which time the workmen gamble, drink and spend their money in the commissary. After having spent all their money they return and work regularly until the next pay-day. Another respect in which the negroes surpass the foreign labor is the ease with which they are handled on the work. They do not resent rough treatment as readily as do the foreign laborers, nor do they unite to leave when one of their number is discharged. Still another, and probably the strongest reason for employing negro labor is, as has already been stated, the inclination to spend the entire earnings in the commissary. Despite these conditions, the Southern contractor is not able to secure a sufficient supply of negro laborers and must depend upon

the Italians who present themselves in the greatest numbers for this class of work.

### *Maintenance of Law and Order in Southern Camps*

The maintenance of law and order rests solely with the foreman or walking-bosses, as the camp superintendents are called. Local authorities never interfere, unless there is some infraction of the law affecting people outside of the camp. They are occasionally called in when the contractors wish to detain transportation men, but rarely to settle trouble in camp among the men. There is a characteristic feeling among these walking-bosses that to ask for the assistance of the local authorities is to acknowledge their own inefficiency.

In all camps where immigrants are employed, beer, or some substitute which is practically the same thing, has to be supplied in order to keep the men. It is handled principally by the padrone or contractor, who has it shipped to the camps in barrel lots, consigned to different men in the camp so as to get around the prohibition laws. It is then sold at the commissaries with a profit. In many instances the men do actually order it for themselves by the keg or crate, and it is the existence of this practise that renders it possible for the commissaries to handle it without molestation from the authorities. When the sentiment of the neighboring population is too strong against this practise, a contractor sells an imitation beer as a substitute. This is often a cheap grade of beer in bottles bearing a label of a malt extract.

*The Middle States*

The conditions of work and living are practically the same in construction and other seasonal work in the Middle States, or New York, Delaware, Pennsylvania and New Jersey, as in the South. Laborers are secured by means of regular agencies, and the padrone system is also followed. The housing facilities are also the same as in the South, with the exception that in cases where the work is being carried on near the larger cities and towns the workmen often provide their own quarters. Because the country is more thickly populated, the laborers also frequently buy provisions in the stores of the towns or cities located near the work, but in the more remote localities the commissaries are always found.

Investigations made by Immigration commissions in New York and Massachusetts developed the existence of frightful conditions among immigrant laborers. These conditions were found in many cases to exist among workers hired by contract for public works. They were often found among workers hired by private industries, also among the workers of transportation lines. These reports brought out the fact that no amusements and no recreation were provided for these men, that they were afforded no educational facilities and that the camps in which they worked were practically a law unto themselves. Transportation companies in many cases make use of old box cars for living purposes.

Some States have passed laws regulating the living conditions among these men. Such laws are hard to enforce, as many points, often remote from lines of travel, have to be covered, necessitating a large force of inspectors in order to maintain good conditions.

## XI

### THE IMMIGRANT AS A DYNAMIC FACTOR IN INDUSTRY

The absorption of so large numbers of alien people into the mines and manufacturing establishments, and into the general labor force of the United States, was obviously attended by very important results. These effects of the extensive employment of southern and eastern Europeans may be briefly considered, from (1) the standpoint of the general industrial situation, and (2) that of native Americans and of foreign-born workmen of early immigration. Before entering into a discussion of these effects, however, it will be necessary, in order that the situation may be fully comprehended, to review briefly the personal and industrial qualities of the recent immigrant labor supply to the United States.

#### *Salient Characteristics of the Immigrant Labor Supply*

##### LACK OF TECHNICAL TRAINING

One of the facts of greatest import in connection with the recent immigrant labor supply has been that an exceedingly small proportion have had any training abroad for the industrial occupations in which they have found employment in the United States. The greater number of recent immigrants have been drawn from the agricultural classes of southern and eastern Europe, having been farmers, or farm labor-

ers, or unskilled laborers in their native lands. The only exception is afforded by the Hebrews, three-fifths of whom were engaged in some form of manufacturing or hand-trades before coming to this country.\*

#### ILLITERACY AND INABILITY TO SPEAK ENGLISH

The new immigrant labor supply, owing to the fact that it is composed of men of non-English-speaking races, and is characterized by a high degree of illiteracy, has been found to possess but small resources upon which to develop industrial efficiency and advancement. Owing to their segregation and isolation from the native American population in living and working conditions, their progress in acquiring the use of the English language and in learning to read and write, has been very slow.

#### THEIR NECESSITOUS CONDITION

Another salient fact in connection with the recent immigrant labor supply has been the necessitous condition of the newcomers upon their arrival in American industrial communities. Immigrants from the South and East of Europe have usually had but a few dollars in their possession when their final destination in this country has been reached. During the years, 1905-1909, the average amount of money in the possession of each person among these immigrants when they reached their port of disembarkation was about

\* In Appendix E detailed statistical tables will be found substantiating the statements made in this chapter relative to the personal and industrial characteristics of recent immigrants from southern and eastern Europe as contrasted with those of former years from Great Britain and western Europe. These tables show (1) Industrial condition of immigrants abroad; (2) general literacy; (3) inability to speak English; (4) conjugal condition; and (5) congestion within immigrant households.

one-third as much as among immigrants from northern and western Europe. Later figures bring out the same conditions. Consequently, finding it absolutely imperative to engage in work at once, they have not been in a position to take exception to wages or working conditions, but must obtain employment on the terms offered or suffer from actual want.

#### LOW STANDARDS OF LIVING

The standards of living of the recent industrial workers from the South and East of Europe have also been very low. Furthermore, the recent immigrants being usually single, or, if married, having left their wives abroad, have in large measure adopted a group instead of a family living arrangement, and thereby have reduced their cost of living to a point far below that of the American or of the older immigrant in the same industry. The method of living often followed is that commonly known as the "boarding-boss" system, which has already been described in considerable detail.

Under this general method of living, which prevails among the greater proportion of the immigrant households, the entire outlay for necessary living expenses of each adult member is very low. The additional expenditures of the recent immigrant wage-earners are small. Every effort is made to save as much as possible. The entire life interest and activity of the average wage-earner from southern and eastern Europe has seemed to revolve about three points: (1) To earn the largest possible amount under the existing conditions of work; (2) to live upon the basis of minimum cheapness, and (3) to save as much as possible. All living arrange-



ments have been subordinated to the desire to reduce the cost of living to its lowest level. Comfort seems not to be considered.

#### LACK OF PERMANENT INTEREST

Another salient characteristic of recent immigrants who have sought work in American industries has been that, as a whole, they have manifested but a small degree of permanent interest in their employment in any industry. They have constituted a mobile, migratory, and disturbing wage-earning class, constrained mainly by their immediate economic interest, and moving readily from place to place according to changes in working conditions or fluctuations in the demand for labor.

This condition of affairs is made possible by the fact that so large a proportion of the recent immigrant employees are single men, or married men whose wives are abroad, and by the additional fact that the prevailing method of living among immigrant workmen is such as to enable them to detach themselves from an occupation or a locality whenever they may wish. Their accumulations also are in the form of cash or are quickly convertible into cash. In brief, the recent immigrant has no property or other constraining interests which attach him to a community, and the larger proportion are free to follow the best industrial inducements. This characteristic has both a good and a bad influence. It creates a certain flexibility in the labor supply, and to a certain extent brings about an exodus from the country in times of depression and curtailment of employment. It also causes an increased pressure and competition within the country during a period of industrial depression.

## TRACTABILITY OF THE IMMIGRANT

To the characteristics of recent immigrant wage-earners already described, should be added one other. The members of the larger number of races of recent entrance to the mines, mills and factories have been tractable and easily managed. This quality seems to be a temperamental one, acquired through past conditions of life in their native lands. In the normal life of the mines, mills and factories, the southern and eastern Europeans have exhibited a pronounced tendency toward being easily managed by employers and toward being imposed upon without protest, which has created the impression of subserviency. This characteristic, while strong, is confined, however, to the immigrant wage-earners of comparatively short residence in this country, and results from their lack of training or experience abroad, and from the difference between their standards and aspirations and those of older immigrant employees and native American industrial workers.

*The Inefficiency of the Immigrants Has Encouraged  
the Use of Machinery*

If the characteristics of the recent immigrant labor supply to the United States, as outlined above, be carefully borne in mind, the conditions which have been produced by their employment may be quickly realized.

As regards the general industrial effects, it may be said, in the first place, that the lack of skill and industrial training of the recent immigrant to the United States has stimulated the invention of mechanical

methods and processes which might be conducted by unskilled industrial workers as a substitute for the skilled operatives formerly required. This condition of affairs obviously must have been true, or the expansion of American industry within recent years would not have been possible. A large number of illustrations of this tendency might be cited. Probably three of the best, however, are the automatic looms and ring spindles in the cotton-goods manufacturing industry, the bottle-blowing and casting machines in bottle and other glass factories, and the machines for mining coal.

*The Employment of the Immigrant Has Changed the Form of Industrial Organization*

Another, but rather minor, general industrial effect of the employment of the southern and eastern Europeans is observable in the increase in the number of sub-foremen in many industries. This situation arises principally from the fact that the recent immigrants are usually of non-English-speaking races, and therefore require a larger amount of supervision than the native Americans and older immigrants from Great Britain and northern Europe. The function of the subordinate foreman is largely that of an interpreter.

As regards other changes in industrial organization and methods, probably the most important effect observable is seen in the creation of a number of special occupations, the incumbents of which perform all the dangerous or responsible work which before the employment of southern and eastern Europeans was distributed over the entire operating force. An excellent example of this tendency is to be found in the newly

developed occupation of "shot-firer" in bituminous and anthracite coal mines. The mine worker in this occupation prepares and discharges the blasts or shots for bringing down the coal. Formerly each miner did his own blasting, but with the employment of the untrained southern and eastern Europeans in the mines, it was soon found that the safety of the operating forces and the maintenance of the quality of the output required that blasting should be done by experienced native American or older immigrant employees.

*Immigration Has Produced Unsatisfactory Conditions of Employment*

As to the effect of recent immigration upon native American and older immigrant wage-earners in the United States, it may be stated, in the first place, that the lack of industrial training and experience of the recent immigrant before coming to the United States, together with his illiteracy and inability to speak English, has had the effect of exposing the original employees to unsafe and unsanitary working conditions, or has led to the imposition of conditions of employment which the native American or older immigrant employees have considered unsatisfactory and in some cases unbearable. When the older employees have found dangerous and unhealthy conditions prevailing in the mines and manufacturing establishments and have protested, the recent immigrant employees, usually through ignorance of mining or other working methods, have manifested a willingness to accept the alleged unsatisfactory conditions. In a large number of cases the lack of training and experience of the

southern and eastern European affects only his own safety. On the other hand, his ignorant acquiescence in dangerous and unsanitary working conditions may make the continuance of such conditions possible and thus becomes a menace to a part or to the whole of an operating force of an industrial establishment. In mining, the presence of an untrained employee may constitute an element of danger to the entire body of workmen. There seems to be a direct causal relation between the extensive employment of recent immigrants in American mines and the extraordinary increase within recent years in the number of mining accidents. It is an undisputed fact that the greatest number of accidents in bituminous coal mines arise from two causes: (1) the recklessness, and (2) the ignorance and inexperience, of employees. When the lack of training of the recent immigrant abroad is considered in connection with the fact that he becomes a workman in the mines immediately upon his arrival in this country, and when it is recalled that a large proportion of the new arrivals are not only illiterate and unable to read any precautionary notices posted in the mines, but are also unable to speak English and are consequently without ability to comprehend instructions intelligently, the inference is plain that the employment of recent immigrants has caused a deterioration in working conditions.

No complete statistics have been compiled as to the connection between accidents and races employed, but the figures available clearly indicate the conclusion that there has been a direct relation between the employment of untrained foreigners and the prevalence of mining casualties. The mining inspectors of the several coal-producing States, the United States Geo-



logical Survey, and the older employees in the industry, also bear testimony in this respect to the effect of the employment of the southern and eastern European. The opinion of the Geological Survey is of especial interest and may be briefly quoted:

"Another important factor in the United States is to be found in the nationality of the miners. Most of the men are foreign-born, a large proportion of them are unable to understand English freely, and a still larger number are unable to read or write that language. Some of them are inexperienced, and do not take proper precautions either for their own safety or that of others. This becomes a most serious menace unless they are restrained by properly enforced regulations."\*

#### THE EFFECT OF THE RECENT IMMIGRANT UPON STANDARDS OF LIVING

The extensive employment of recent immigrants has brought about living conditions and a standard of living with which the older employees have been unable or have found it extremely difficult to compete. This fact may be readily inferred from what has already been said relative to the methods of domestic economy of immigrant households and the cost of living of their members.

#### THE IMMIGRANT AND LABOR ORGANIZATIONS

The entrance into the operating forces of the mines and manufacturing establishments, in such large numbers, of the races of recent immigration, has also had the effect of weakening the labor organizations of

\*Bulletin 333 of the United States Geological Survey, entitled "Coal Mining Accidents: Their Causes and Prevention."



the original employees, and in some of the industries has caused their entire demoralization and disruption. This has been due to the character of the recent immigrant labor supply, and to the fact that so large numbers of recent immigrants have found employment in American industries within such a short period of time. On account of lack of industrial training and experience, low standards of living, as compared with native American wage-earners, their necessitous condition while seeking employment in this country and their tractability, southern and eastern Europeans, as already noted, have been willing to accept the existing rates of compensation and working conditions. The thrift and industry of recent immigrants have also made them unwilling to enter into labor disputes involving loss of time, or to join labor organizations to which it was necessary to pay regular dues. As a consequence, they have not affiliated with labor organizations unless compelled to do so as a preliminary step toward acquiring work; and then, after becoming members of the labor union, they have manifested but little interest in the tenets or policy of the organization. In the instances where they have united with the labor organizations, on the occasion of strikes or labor dissensions, they have usually refused to maintain membership for any extended period of time, thus rendering difficult the unionization of the industry or occupation in which they are engaged.

Furthermore, the fact that recent immigrants are usually of non-English-speaking races, and their high degree of illiteracy, have made their absorption by the labor organizations very slow and expensive. In many cases, too, the conscious policy of the employers of mixing the races in different departments and divi-

sions of labor, in order, by a diversity of tongues, to prevent concerted action on the part of employees, has made unionization of the immigrant almost impossible. This custom, of course, is in no way inconsistent with the opposite practise found in different circumstances of grouping the races separately to prevent disturbances arising from race hostilities. (See page 224.

The significant result of the whole situation has been that the influx of the southern and eastern Europeans has been too rapid to permit of their ready absorption by the labor organizations which were in existence before their arrival. In some industries the influence and power of the labor unions are concerned only with those occupations in which the competition of the southern and eastern European has been only indirectly or remotely felt, and consequently the labor organizations have not been very seriously affected. In the occupations and industries in which the pressure of the competition of the recent immigrant has been directly felt, either because the nature of the work was such as to permit of the immediate employment of the immigrant or because the invention of improved machinery made his employment possible in occupations which formerly required training and apprenticeship, the labor organizations have been, in a great many cases, completely overwhelmed and disrupted. In other industries and occupations in which the elements of skilled training and experience were requisite, such as in certain divisions of the glass-manufacturing industry, the effect of the employment of recent immigrants upon labor organizations has not been followed by such injurious results.

*Racial Displacement as a Result of Immigrant Competition*

Competition of the southern and eastern European has led to a voluntary or involuntary displacement, in certain occupations and industries, of the native American and of the older immigrant employees from Great Britain and northern Europe. These racial displacements have manifested themselves in three ways:

(a) A large proportion of native Americans and older immigrant employees from Great Britain and northern Europe have left certain industries, such as bituminous and anthracite coal mining and iron and steel manufacturing.

(b) A part of the earlier employees who remained in the industries in which they were employed before the advent of the southern and eastern European, have been able, because of the demand growing out of the general industrial expansion, to rise to more skilled and responsible executive and technical positions which required employees of training and experience. In the larger number of cases, however, where the older employees remained in a certain industry after the pressure of the competition of the recent immigrant had begun to be felt, they relinquished their former positions and segregated themselves in certain other occupations. This tendency is best illustrated by the distribution of employees according to race in bituminous coal mines. In this industry all the so-called "company" occupations, which are paid on the basis of a daily, weekly, or monthly rate, are filled by native Americans or older immigrants and their children, while the southern and

eastern Europeans are confined to pick mining and the unskilled and common labor. The same situation exists in other branches of manufacturing enterprise. The stigma which has become attached to working in the same occupations as the southern and eastern European, as in the bituminous coal mining industry, has led to this segregation of the older class of employees in occupations which, from the standpoint of compensation, are less desirable than those occupied by recent immigrants. In most industries the native American and older immigrant workmen who have remained in the same occupations in which the recent immigrants are predominant are the thriftless, unprogressive elements of the original operating forces.

(c) Another striking feature of the competition of southern and eastern Europeans is the fact that in the case of most industries, such as iron and steel, textile and glass manufacturing, and the different forms of mining, the children of native Americans and of older immigrants from Great Britain and northern Europe are not entering the industries in which their fathers have been employed. Many classes of manufacturers claim that they are unable to secure a sufficient number of native-born employees to insure the development of the necessary number of workmen to fill the positions of skill and responsibility in their establishments. This condition of affairs is attributed to three factors: (1) General or technical education has enabled a considerable number of the children of industrial workers to command business, professional, or technical occupations apparently more desirable than those of their fathers. (2) The conditions of work which have resulted from the employment of recent

immigrants have rendered certain industrial occupations unattractive to the wage-earner of native birth. (3) Occupations other than those in which southern and eastern Europeans are engaged are sought for the reason that popular opinion attaches to them a more satisfactory social status and a higher degree of respectability. Whatever may be the cause of this aversion of older employees to working by the side of the new arrivals, the existence of the feeling has been crystallized into one of the most potent causes of racial substitution in manufacturing and mining occupations.

### *Immigration Has Checked Increase in Wages*

As regards the effects of the employment of recent immigrants upon wages and hours of work, there is no evidence to show that the employment of southern and eastern European wage-earners has caused a direct lowering of wages or an extension in the hours of work in mines and industrial establishments. It is undoubtedly true that the availability of the large supply of recent immigrant labor has prevented the increase in wages which otherwise would have resulted during recent years from the increased demand for labor. The low standards of the southern and eastern European, his ready acceptance of a low wage and existing working conditions, his lack of permanent interest in the occupation and community in which he has been employed, his attitude toward labor organizations, his slow progress toward assimilation, and his willingness seemingly to accept indefinitely without protest certain wages and conditions of employment, have rendered it extremely difficult for the older classes of employees to secure improvements in con-



ditions or advancement in wages since the arrival in considerable numbers of southern and eastern European wage-earners. As a general proposition, it may be said that all improvements in conditions and increases in rates of pay have been secured in spite of their presence. The recent immigrant, in other words, has not actively opposed the movements toward better conditions of employment and higher wages, but his availability and his general characteristics and attitude have constituted a passive opposition which has been most effective.

A recent investigation into the standard of living as shown by the rise or fall of real wages "would seem to indicate that at the termination of the great war the return in commodities which the American workman received for an equal length of time worked (one hour) was from 10 to 20 per cent. less than it was in the decade 1890-1899, and from 7 to 17 per cent. less than it was before the sharp upward movement of prices in 1916. The purchasing power of the established week's work, moreover, was from 20 to 30 per cent. less than in the nineties and from 10 to 20 per cent. less than in 1915. American labor as a whole, therefore, cannot legitimately be charged with having profited during the war. Rather, like Alice in Wonderland, it was compelled to run faster in order to stay in the same place."\*

This study only supports similar studies made along these lines. There is no doubt that the vast influx of immigration has had a very great effect upon the situation.

\* Paul H. Douglas, University of Chicago, and Frances Lamberson, Portland, Oregon, on "The Movement of Real Wages, 1890-1918," *American Economic Review*, September, 1921.



*Industrial Depression*

The recent immigrant, of all classes of employees, is usually the residual sufferer in times of industrial depression. His presence also tends to intensify the unfavorable conditions which have arisen from other causes. The statement that the influx and the outgo of foreign-born workmen automatically adjusts itself to activity or stagnation in mining and manufacturing is only partly true.

During a period of general curtailment of work, as in the case of the financial and industrial breakdown of 1907, married men with families and Americans are given the preference. As a result, recent immigrant wage-earners in large numbers are thrown out of employment. Those who have saved enough to pay their passage, or who have received remittances from home, return to their native lands. Only those remain who have come to this country on the eve of the depression and are unable to secure work or to save enough to return, or those who are unable, as in the case of many Bulgarians and Macedonians, to go back to their countries of origin because of political offenses, or other reasons.

These classes of the immigrant population often become public charges, as in many industrial localities in 1907-08 where there was much suffering and destitution and even starvation.

Another unfavorable effect was to be seen in the fact that the alien wage-earners who were seeking work, being without property or families, were mobile and ready to concentrate in excessive numbers at a point where a demand for labor made itself evident.

This tendency obviously created an oversupply of labor with attendant dissatisfaction and suffering in many localities.

### *General Conclusions*

If the entire situation be reviewed, and the effects of recent immigration be considered in all its industrial aspects, there are several significant conclusions which, altho subject to some unimportant restrictions, may be set forth as indicating the general effects of the extensive employment in the mines and industrial establishments of the United States of southern and eastern European immigrants. These general conclusions may be briefly summarized as follows:

(1) The influx of recent immigrants has, by affording an adequate labor supply, made possible the remarkably quick expansion in mining and manufacturing in the United States during the past thirty years.

(2) The extensive employment of southern and eastern Europeans has seriously affected the native American and older immigrant employees from Great Britain and northern Europe by causing displacements and by retarding advancement in rates of pay and improvements in conditions of employment.

(3) Industrial efficiency among the recent immigrant wage-earners has been very slowly developed, owing to the illiteracy and inability to speak English.

(4) For these same reasons the general progress toward assimilation and the attainment of American standards of work and living has also been very slow.

(5) The conclusion of greatest significance developed by the general industrial investigation of the United States Immigration Commission is that the point of complete saturation has already been reached in the employment of recent immigrants in mining and manufacturing establishments. Owing to the rapid expansion in industry which has taken place during the past thirty years, and the constantly increasing employment of southern and eastern Europeans, it has been impossible to assimilate the newcomers, politically or socially, or to educate them to American standards of compensation, efficiency or conditions of employment.

(6) Too exclusive emphasis in the discussion of immigration, within recent years, has been placed upon the social and political results of recent immigration, altho no one questions that in the long run these social results may be of chief import. But that side of the question has been kept well in mind in previous legislation. Now the emphasis should be shifted. The main problem at present is really fundamentally an industrial one, and should be principally considered in its economic aspects.

### *The Outlook for the American Wage-Earner*

To establish firmly an American standard of work and living, to guarantee a proper distribution of the benefits of our marvelous natural resources and our wonderful industrial progress, and at the same time to maintain the spirit of enterprise and the stimulation to industrial progress and efficiency, it is absolutely neces-

sary to impose limitations upon the numbers of immigrants who are likely to enter the country as a result of present conditions in Europe. Unless there is a restriction of immigration, the situation for the American industrial worker is not very promising. A policy of permanent or absolute exclusion is not imperative. It is essential to limit temporarily the number of incoming aliens so that the foreign workmen already in the country may be industrially assimilated and educated to the point where they will demand proper standards of living and will be constrained by the economic aspirations of the native American. A law drastically limiting immigration was passed by Congress on May 9, 1921. This, however, is only a temporary measure and permanent legislation must be passed at its expiration. If an influx of immigrant wage-earners in the future, similar to that before the war should be allowed, there is no ground for expecting improvement in the working and living conditions of the employees of our mines and factories in the years to come. Organized effort is rendered almost impossible. Industrial workers of both native and foreign parentage, because of the constant extension of the use of improved machinery and the decline in the demand for skill and experience, have been gradually losing the opportunity to help themselves by concerted action. They are also rapidly passing beyond the reach of those altruistic persons who would assist them for the reason that one group of workmen is no sooner raised toward a higher economic status than the competition of the next wave of immigration completely inundates them and causes a downward tendency in methods of living and in conditions of employment.

It is clearly apparent that a restriction of immi-

gration would be in reality an arbitrary curtailment of the increase in the existing labor supply and might be attended by a temporary check in the rapidity of the remarkable industrial expansion which has been characteristic of recent years; but it is equally true that the measure of the economic welfare of the citizens of an industrial and commercial nation does not consist in the number of tons of coal produced or the tons of pig-iron, steel rails, or yards of print cloth manufactured. The real indication of material prosperity is to be found in the extent to which the wage-earners in mines and factories share in the industrial output which is partly attributable to their labors, and unless there is a limitation placed upon the inexhaustible supply of cheap foreign labor of low standards and aspirations which is now coming to this country, it is perfectly clear that the American wage-earner can not hope to participate properly in the results of our industrial progress. Moreover, altho the rate of increase in the supply of unskilled labor would be lessened by a restriction of immigration, it can not be questioned that the higher wages and better standards of living which would be the logical outcome, would attract to our shores skilled and highly trained workmen from northern and western Europe who, under present conditions, have largely ceased to immigrate to the United States and who are favored by the Percentage Bill which was passed in May, 1921. The return of this more efficient class of wage-earners would probably have the effect of reducing labor costs of manufacturing and of making possible a greater diversification of industries. In addition to the prevailing system of manufacturing comparatively low-grade articles upon a quantitative basis, the tendency would be toward the

promotion of industries for the production of more finished and special commodities which are now sold in our own and the world markets by foreign manufacturers.

At this point it is worth noting that, without any additions to our existing labor supply, due to the cutting off of immigration by war conditions, the United States was able to increase its production in almost every line of activity to unprecedented totals. This clearly showed that there must have been present, as the United States Immigration Report indicated, a large amount of unemployed, unskilled labor in the country, which had to be taken up before any real shortage of labor existed. The situation, as it developed during the war, gave striking and conclusive evidence to the accuracy of the conclusions reached by the Immigration Commission regarding the labor situation, especially that of the unskilled in this country. There is no doubt that the condition of labor, in fact general social conditions, have been vastly improved as a result of the temporary cutting off of immigration from foreign countries, and this despite the fact that 4,000,000 of young, able-bodied men were called to the colors.

Just now the slowing down in industrial conditions has thrown millions of people out of work in the United States. Wages are being lowered, and it would seem that for a long time to come the United States would not need any large amount of immigrant labor to augment its present working force. The population in the United States increased from 91,972,266 to 105,708,771 during the decade 1910-1920, a gain of 13,736,505. With such a population to draw upon, it would seem as if there was little likelihood of a real



shortage of necessary labor existing in the United States in the future.

Not only the economic welfare of the American wage-earner but the maintenance of our political and social institutions would be threatened by a large influx of immigrants at this time. The United States has reached a point in its history where a permanent policy of restrictive legislation can be adopted without endangering any essential need in the United States and at the same time correcting many of the difficulties under which this country is now laboring.

As a nation we have been receiving immigrants at too rapid a rate. Before the war the United States Immigration Commission made clear the fact that the economic development of this country was not rapid enough to absorb the numbers coming to our shores. From the social viewpoint it was also clear that the assimilating forces of the nation had not been able to digest properly this mass of people composed of races from all over the world. In the year preceding the enactment of the recent three per cent. immigration law, the numbers coming to this country had already reached a total of over 800,000, with every indication that this number would be greatly augmented if drastic restrictive legislation was not passed. There is no doubt that the passage of this act was a wise move on the part of Congress and the President. Instead of adding to our already complex immigration problem, the time has now come for a reasonable permanent restriction so as to allow economic and social forces to make headway with those immigrants already in this country. We cannot go on in the old way without serious consequences to the nation as a whole.

## XII

### EUROPEAN AND MEXICAN IMMIGRANTS ON THE PACIFIC COAST

#### *Assimilation*

In the discussion of European immigration into the United States, as already pointed out, the chief factor to be taken into account is economic. What is the normal effect of the immigration upon the wages and living conditions of the American? Inasmuch as the races, particularly those of northern Europe, are generally similar to those of the inhabitants of the United States, the question of assimilation is much less difficult than in the case of Orientals. Ordinarily, even if the members of the first generation can not be easily assimilated, those of the second and later generations, under the influence of our public schools and the social circumstances which surround them, are eventually assimilated.

#### RACE PREJUDICE

On the other hand, when the immigrants are members of races widely different from Americans, as are the Chinese, the Japanese, the Hindus, the question of race and race prejudice becomes an extremely important problem.

The untrained man is likely to assume that those people who differ widely from himself in appearance, in habits of living or of working, are members of a lower and not merely of a different race. He is ac-

customed to speak of the Italian, for example, with contempt, as a "dago." Still more emphatic is he in his denouncement of the Chinese, the Japanese, and the Hindus as members of an inferior race. Of course, the cultivated man, especially one who has traveled widely, knows better. As Professor Steiner has so well reminded us, the first immigrant to America was a dago named Columbus, a man of learning and of the highest cultivation. Moreover, when at the present day Americans go to Europe to study art and architecture they are very likely to go to the land of the great dagoes, Michelangelo, Giotto, Raffael, Leonardo da Vinci, and others of similar rank. Nowhere in the world have we been able to find in centuries past, or do we find in the world to-day, people of higher cultivation than the Italians. Moreover, if instead of turning our eyes to Europe, we go to the Far East, and visit the Chinese and Japanese, we are equally impressed, as we meet members of the wealthier and more cultivated classes in society, with their high degree of intelligence, with their intellectual training, and especially, perhaps, with the personal qualities which have made them the world over models of courtesy and of manners that characterize the gentleman.

#### ARE OTHER RACES INFERIOR?

It is hardly to be expected, however, that people who have not traveled and who have not read widely should recognize that the ordinary workingmen from the Orient with whom they come into keen competition, and who often underbid them in wages, especially in doing work of the most arduous type, belong to cultivated races; and it is natural that they

should look upon them as inferior people. Moreover, whether they recognize this fact or not, whether or not we ourselves believe that race prejudice is something to be heartily condemned, we must still recognize the actual existence of this feeling as an important political fact.

#### RACE FEELING ELSEWHERE

The feeling against the negroes has forced us to recognize that race feeling is an extremely important political question and may well become a social question.

Moreover, we should recognize the fact that the feeling on the Pacific Coast against the Chinese, the Japanese and the Hindus is not in itself exceptional.

A similar feeling, even stronger, against these same races is found in Canada, in Australia, in South Africa, in every place where these Oriental races have come into immediate contact with the white race, and especially when they have come into active competition with it in ordinary labor. We must recognize this feeling, then, as a usual one and one that must be considered when we come to political action.

#### ORIENTALS NOT EASILY ASSIMILATED

Altho these races may not be considered in any way inferior to ourselves, it is a fact that they are materially different: that they are not so easily assimilated as are the members of the European races; that they do not readily marry with our people nor our people with them. And we should reflect that, short of intermarriage, there is no real amalgamation of races.

## FORM A SEPARATE CLASS

On the Pacific Coast they have, as a matter of fact, usually made an entirely separate working class. Generally speaking, when they have entered largely into a business, or when they have undertaken certain classes of work, there has been a rapid separation between them and the American workingmen, they taking the harder kinds of labor and the members of the white races taking types of work entirely different. In this way they have become, to a considerable extent, almost a separate caste. Indeed, there is a feeling on the part of many people who have carefully observed conditions in that region that the Chinese and Hindus—not the Japanese—have almost made a servile caste; and many of the most thoughtful, most cultivated, most kindly people on the Coast have thought that, inasmuch as these are facts, they must be recognized, and that it is wise for us to take action accordingly.

## GOVERNMENTAL ACTION OF CHINA AND JAPAN

The Governments of China and Japan have really no reason to object to our wishing not to admit the working people of their races in large numbers. As a matter of fact, Americans are not admitted to China or to Japan on even terms with the natives there. They can go into these countries as residents only in very limited communities; they are not permitted to buy land; and they are not admitted to citizenship in those countries. In truth, our country, as a whole, has treated the members, particularly of the Japanese race, more liberally than the Japanese have treated the Americans. The Japanese have been allowed to buy land, in many instances in large tracts;

and tho at the present time we are taking rather active measures to exclude them from coming in large numbers, and in some States are preventing their holding of land, up to date, at any rate, we have treated them more liberally than they have treated us.

It may be well argued, then, that it is better for them, better for us, better for the civilization of the world at large, that each country, where such fundamental differences exist, attempt to work out its own problems independently, instead of each working them out in the country of the other.

#### ADVANTAGES OF ASSOCIATION WITH OTHER NATIONS

We should not fail to recognize, nevertheless, the great advantage that comes from intimate association with people who are different from ourselves. One of the mistakes that we often make in our social intercourse, as well as in our political relations, in associating with people of similar tastes and habits, is to form a little clique or society of persons like ourselves, forgetting that in our intimate intercourse with them, while we may derive enjoyment, we obtain very few new ideas. In talking with men trained as we have been trained, meeting the same people, thinking along lines similar to our own habits of thinking, it is not likely that we shall give them many new thoughts, or that we shall derive much from them. On the other hand, when we meet with people of a different type from ourselves, from them we gather many new ideas, if we are thoughtful and can free ourselves from prejudice. It is they, rather than our most intimate associates, perhaps, from whom we learn most and to whom we owe most in our advancement. Indeed, it is often true, that from people who



are really opposed to ourselves, we learn the most. By opposing our ideas, they rouse us to activity.

### *Advantage of Contact With Educated Orientals*

We ought, then, not to fail to get the benefit from contact with foreigners, especially those whose racial customs differ widely from ours. In order, however, to secure this advantage, it is not necessary that they immigrate in large numbers, and especially that they come as people of the unskilled laboring classes. Rather should we encourage our own people to travel in foreign countries; to get the ideas that come from the study of different civilizations; and we should encourage the coming to our shores of people of the better trained and more intelligent classes—travelers, scientists, students, merchants, and others from whom we can gather new plans of work. While it may, for economic as well as for social reasons, be wise to exclude the common laborer, it can not but be unwise to exclude trained men and women who come to us usually merely for a temporary sojourn, and from whom we may learn much that will tend to benefit our own civilization. Moreover, by exchanging ideas and giving to them the benefits of our civilization, which differs from theirs, we may give to them an equal advantage, and thus the civilization of the world will be promoted. Whatever views we may hold with reference to the ordinary immigration question, so far as the Orient is concerned, there can be no doubt that we ought to uphold a policy of friendly intercourse between the oriental nations and our own, in order that each may get the benefit of the civilization of the other.

*Population of the Pacific Coast*

1900

## EUROPEANS AND MEXICANS

In the eleven States and Territories of the western division of the United States, in 1900, more than 20 per cent. of the population were foreign-born. About 2 per cent. of the population, and about 10 per cent. of the foreign-born, had emigrated from Asia. About 12.7 per cent. of the total population, more than 60 per cent. of the foreign-born, had emigrated from the North European countries. The Germans ranked first, the English next, the Irish next. Moreover, almost 90,000 immigrants from Canada, or 2.2 per cent. of the population, might be included with the North Europeans as being largely of the same stock. Beside these, considerably more than 100,000 had emigrated from southern and eastern Europe, forming some 2.6 per cent. of the population of the western coast. Of these South and Eastern European immigrants, the Italians were the most numerous, followed by the Austrians, Finns and Portuguese.

Another group entirely different, and so distinct in their qualities that they might almost in many respects be classed with the orientals, on account of their ways of living, were the Mexicans, with 103,410, about 1 per cent. of the entire population.

## CHANGES SINCE 1900

During the next decade material changes occurred in the nature of the population. Between 1900 and 1907 came a rapid increase in the number of the Japan-

ese. Some of these came from Japan and others from Hawaii, until the number of that race in the western part of the United States in 1920 was upwards of 95,000. Of these 71,592 were in California, 17,114 in Washington, and 4,002 in Oregon. The number of Chinese on the Pacific Coast, in contrast to the Japanese, is rapidly diminishing, the decline being due in part to the exclusion law, and in part to a tendency among the Chinese to move to Eastern cities. In 1910 the number of Mexicans in the United States was 221,915; in 1920 their numbers had more than doubled, 476,676.

The number of English, Scandinavian, and other North Europeans continued to increase in part by direct immigration from these countries of Europe, and in part by a westward movement of the workers from the East, as the increasing number of South and East Europeans in the East made the working conditions harder; partly, also, this was a westward movement of families to locate in better conditions on farms. There has been, also, an influx of immigrants from southern and eastern Europe, the smaller part of them coming direct from their native land, except perhaps in the case of the North Italians, the Portuguese and one or two other races of less importance numerically, the larger number coming from the Eastern States to engage in common, unskilled, and partly skilled labor in the mines, smelters and other industries where unskilled labor is required in large numbers.

Doubtless, beyond the figures recorded by the Immigration Bureau, a considerable number of Chinese and Japanese are smuggled in.

The United States Commissioner on Immigration in his 1919 report declares that smuggling of Japanese

across the Mexican border is carried on successfully and to a large extent. He states that "confidential information of unquestionable authenticity shows very conclusively that Japanese smuggling across the Mexican border is carried on successfully and doubtless to a very large extent. Southern California possesses a peculiar attraction for the Japanese and it seems inevitable that if some effective means are not found to curb further growth, the Japanese colonies in that section will expand in time into such proportions as to create a serious problem."

Large numbers of Mexicans also evade the immigration service on the Rio Grande border.

#### DISPLACEMENT OF AMERICANS BY EUROPEAN WORKMEN

Tho much less frequently than in the East, there have been found also in the West a few instances of race displacement by Europeans working at a lower wage than the Americans. Generally speaking, the immigrants, introduced for railroad section work, have received the same wages as those previously paid. In certain cases they have secured even more than the laborers previously employed, the latter being insufficient in number to meet the increasing demand.

On several occasions East European races have been introduced as strike-breakers; for example, in the coal mines of Colorado, New Mexico, and Washington, and in the metalliferous mines of Colorado. In these instances the retention of the old scale of wages was only possible because of the failure of the strikes. In this way the immigrants, as in the coal regions of Pennsylvania, discouraged the efforts of the trade-

unions. There have been, however, few such instances.

The availability of a comparatively large supply of the South and East European races, including the Greeks, has at times assisted to a considerable extent in the expansion of industry. On the other hand, there can be no doubt that it has seriously retarded the advance of wages in those occupations where such labor could be used to advantage. A specific example is found in the case of section hands on the railroads, where the wages varied little during a period of fifteen years, altho the wages in other lines of industry advanced materially during the same period. Moreover, the wages of the South and East Europeans and Mexicans have in many cases increased only slightly, if at all, while the wages of Japanese, even when in the same line of work, have been materially advanced.

Again, in certain fields of work where, in certain localities, the Europeans from the North and East of Europe are employed, and in other places those from southeastern Europe and from Mexico, it has been found that among the latter wages have advanced only slightly, whereas among the earlier classes they have been materially higher.

#### UNSKILLED IMMIGRANTS

The immigrants from South and East Europe have been mainly unskilled laborers, and, on the whole, have not shown the same readiness to join trade unions and to insist upon American working conditions as have those of the older immigration from the North and West of Europe. Again, there is clearly a tendency on the part of some employers to segregate their unskilled workmen into colonies under the leader-



ship of a man of their own race. In this way, by keeping the gangs separated one from the other, they are able to simplify supervision and to avoid any display of race antipathy.

#### KNOWLEDGE OF ENGLISH

There seems to be, also, a material difference between these classes of immigrants as regards their tendency to assimilation, so far as this may be indicated by their knowledge of English. Approximately four-fifths of the number of the non-English-speaking North European races, who have resided in this country less than five years, speak English, while less than half of most of the races from southern and eastern Europe speak English. Even among the South and East Europeans, however, there is quite a material difference, the Finns, Dalmatians and Croatians showing greater progress than the Russians, Slovaks and Italians.

The difference between the North and the South and East Europeans tends, of course, to disappear with the length of residence. As years go by, the immigrants from southern and eastern Europe are showing inclinations much more like those found in the races from northern Europe.

In the case of seasonal labor, such as the maintenance of way on railroads, lumbering, fishing, certain parts of the coal and ore mining industries, are found chiefly the recent immigrants, who are either unmarried, or whose wives have not been brought with them. These immigrants, living more freely than others in bunk-houses in race groups, are largely drawn from South and East European races. Those, however, who remain in the United States for a com-



paratively long period, show a much greater proportion of married men. As time goes by, they bring their wives and children from Europe; especially is this to be noted among the Italians and Slovaks, Slovenians and Finns. These families usually get into the more settled kinds of unskilled labor, such as is found in the coal and ore mines and the smelters.

In the larger cities, where the races have remained for a considerable length of time, they have often become much more strongly Americanized. Much larger numbers speak English, and those who are better-to-do show a tendency to leave the colonies of their own people, and to go into the better resident districts. Their children differ much less from those of the American-born, unless they are brought up throughout their childhood in the race colonies, than do their parents. Various races have organized benevolent societies for the care of those of their own people who are unfortunate. These societies, beyond any question, tend somewhat to prevent the race from being Americanized, or perhaps they are rather an evidence that they are not fully Americanized. At the same time, such plans can hardly be regretted since, altho they may somewhat retard the process of assimilation, these societies encourage thrift, and show an independence of State aid, which is extremely commendable.

#### ITALIAN COLONIES, PORTUGUESE, ETC.

With the exception of a few California communities, the Italian farmers are generally closely colonized. In most cases they are engaged in market gardening, in other cases in grape culture and wine making. The Italians are good farmers; they have

converted large tracts of land, formerly used for stock raising and general farming, into vineyards and orchards, and have added greatly to the wealth of the State. The Italians frequently cooperate in leasing land.

The Portuguese, on the other hand, seldom cooperate, each individual wishing to rent alone his separate land. The Portuguese, while endeavoring to establish themselves independently, have, perhaps, not progressed quite so rapidly in the way of securing land and of becoming prosperous as have either the Italians, Japanese, or the German-Russians. In some special instances, the German-Russians seem to have succeeded unusually well. A considerable number of them have come to Fresno County, California, within the last twenty years. Altho they began earning their livelihood as unskilled laborers, many have since established themselves as farmers. They now control a considerable acreage. These same people have also made settlements in Colorado, and in some cases the sugar companies have brought large numbers of families of this race from Nebraska to do the hand work employed in growing sugar beets. They are industrious and thrifty, and have made an excellent record in becoming tenant and even independent farmers. These, with the Italians and Portuguese, have perhaps succeeded better than the other races in becoming farm owners, and in really settling down to develop into prosperous American citizens.

### *Mexicans*

Altho the Mexicans are not to be looked upon as Europeans or Asiatic laborers, nevertheless, being found chiefly on the Pacific Coast, as they present a

separate and difficult problem, and in many respects are assimilated with very great difficulty, it is thought best to touch briefly upon their situation here.

#### NUMBER

In 1900, as reported by the census, the number of Mexicans in the United States was 103,410. Since that time their immigration has been very rapid.

In 1910 they had increased to 221,915. Since that date they have entered in increasing numbers. In 1919, 29,818 crossed the border; in 1920, 52,307. The war demand for labor had a great deal to do with this acceleration of Mexican immigration. In 1917 and 1918, 21,289 Mexican laborers were admitted temporarily, altho otherwise inadmissible by law, in order to work on farms, railroads and in coal mines. By 1920, the Mexicans in the United States had increased to 476,676.

The Mexicans are practically all of them engaged in unskilled labor. Their chief employments are general construction work, as section hands, members of extra gangs on the railroads, as common laborers in railway shops, in coal and ore mining, as general laborers at the smelters, and at times as seasonal farm hands in Texas, Colorado and California and other Southwestern States. Usually the Mexicans seem to be without much ambition or thrift, are content with the wage conditions, and their progress in consequence has been slow, much more so than that of the Japanese or Chinese.

The Immigration Commission found their wage was the lowest of that paid to any of the laborers who were simply on the maintenance-of-way railroad work,

being 25 per cent. less than that of the Japanese. In some cases they were found to have been able to take the places of the higher paid Japanese or Hindus.

Some of them have been taken as far north as Colorado and elsewhere, to work, but mostly when they are taken far away from the Mexican border, arrangements are made by which they can be returned home at the expense of the railway company that engages them. Probably 50 per cent. of those entering the country at El Paso claim their transportation back to that place.

As workers, the Mexicans are stronger physically than the Japanese, more tractable and more easily managed. They are inferior in that they are more likely to drink to excess, and are more irregular in their work, especially after pay-day. Very few of them rise to the rank of foremen; they are, nevertheless, tho unprogressive, intelligent enough to work fairly well under careful supervision.

In certain cases earlier, especially in 1903 and 1904, they were employed as strike-breakers, but not of late years.

Where they have been employed in agriculture, even in growing sugar beets, or otherwise where they come into competition with the Japanese, they are found less efficient. A Japanese laborer will care for from 11 to 12 acres, and a Mexican about 8. In a few cases the Mexicans are preferred by the employers as hand workers to the Japanese, but in most lines of work they are considered inferior.

Where they have settled in colonies as, for example, in Los Angeles and other such places, the Mexican quarters are usually by far the poorest in the

city. Generally, they are located in the least desirable districts, are overcrowded, and are kept in a filthy condition. In Los Angeles the investigations of the Immigration Commission show that their family incomes are the smallest, their standard of living lowest, their lack of thrift the greatest, of all of the immigrant races investigated. Approximately \$8 per month was the cost of subsistence among the railway laborers. Their food is largely vegetable, beans taking the place rice takes among the Asiatics.

They are not readily assimilated. They have poor educational facilities at home, and apparently in our country, where opportunities are furnished, they do not like to attend school. The large percentage of illiterates is noteworthy. Of those investigated by the Commission, for whom the information was obtained, 50.58 per cent. only reported that they could read and write. Moreover, they learn English very slowly, less than 14 per cent. of those investigated speaking English. Of those who had resided in the United States less than five years, only 7.1 per cent. could speak English.

Even when their children go to school their attendance, and apparently their intelligence, are decidedly less than the average. Generally, as workers, the Mexicans are looked upon as inferior; marriages between Mexicans and Europeans or Americans are very rare, and tho when they go back home, apparently they have taken some American ideas and American institutions with them, they have shown very little progress toward assimilation.

Unlike the Chinese and Japanese, they frequently become public charges. They are also likely to be quarrelsome, and inclined toward crime, the principal

offenses being petty larceny and drunkenness, with fights and other crimes usually brought about by drink. It would seem from the records that the Mexican is even less desirable as a citizen than he is as a laborer, but it should be borne in mind that a very considerable proportion of them are seasonal laborers, and never intend to become permanent residents of the United States.



### XIII

## ORIENTAL IMMIGRATION TO THE PACIFIC COAST STATES

### *The Chinese*

#### NUMBER

According to the the Census Reports, the number of Chinese in the continental United States in 1900 was 89,863, in 1910, 71,531, and only 61,688 in 1920. The Chinese population is largely male, probably only 4,000 being women.

As is to be expected from the effects of the Chinese exclusion laws the number steadily decreases, but at intervals between censuses it is difficult to estimate the numbers actually in the country. Many of those enumerated have died; some have returned to China (32,420 during the years 1908 to 1920); others who were on a visit to China have returned here; and men, women and children of the eligible classes have been admitted into the United States from time to time, 41,852\* having been admitted according to records between July 1, 1899, and June 30, 1920, many representing themselves either as native-born Americans or as belonging to one of the eligible classes (for example, students or travelers), when, as a matter of fact, they are coolies, and intend to settle in this country permanently. Further than this, a considerable number of the

\* Report of Commissioner General of Immigration, 1920, page 180.

Chinese are smuggled across the border. On the whole, however, since the reasonably careful enforcement of the Chinese Exclusion Act, the number of Chinese is steadily diminishing. Furthermore, a considerable number of Chinese formerly living in the West have migrated to the East, so that in the districts under consideration the decrease has been material.

#### OCCUPATIONS IN EARLY YEARS

The first great migration of Chinese laborers to this country dated from the time of the great rush to California in search of gold in the early fifties. Before the end of the sixties, on account of the absence of cheap labor, they had gone into a variety of occupations. They were industrious, thrifty, and the form of organization of the Chinese laborers, by which it was possible for employers to secure the services of almost any number desired through one contractor, placed a premium upon their employment. Probably the larger number of them were engaged in gold mining, some 20,000 in 1861. Somewhat later many thousands were employed in the construction of the Central Pacific Railroad; others were engaged in gardening, laundrying, domestic service, and other occupations. In 1870, in San Francisco alone, domestic servants of the Chinese race numbered 1,256 out of a total of 6,800 servants. A decided majority of the somewhat more than 2,000 laundrymen in San Francisco were Chinese; as laborers in domestic and personal service, they numbered somewhat more than 2,000, about 25 per cent. of all. There were a considerable number of them among the skilled laborers; in the manufacture of boots and shoes, in cigar-making (in the latter industry 1,657

out of the entire 1,811 employed being Chinese), and a few were employed in the manufacture of woollen clothing. Later, when the salmon-canning industry developed in Oregon and Washington and later still in Alaska, they were employed almost exclusively in canning the fish caught by white fishermen. Even now they constitute a large percentage of those engaged in that industry and of the general laborers employed in powder factories.

Perhaps of greatest importance, in the earlier days, was the employment of Chinese as hand laborers in the orchards, fields, hop-yards and vineyards of California north of the Tehachepi, and in the fruit-canning industry. In the latter part of the eighties they did most of the hand work on the farms—hoeing, weeding, pruning, harvesting—in all localities in the central and northern part of the States, where intensive farming was carried on. At that time it was extremely difficult to obtain cheap and reliable white laborers, and the presence of the Chinese made possible the high degree of specialized farming which came to prevail. They had much less to do in general farming. They were not good teamsters, and their work was limited almost entirely to hand work.

#### WAGES: EFFICIENCY

The reason why the Chinese easily secured positions in those days was: first, because they were the cheapest laborers available for unskilled work; second, next to the native-born they outnumbered any other race, something like 14 per cent. of the total persons engaged in gainful operations being Chinese, while the Irish, the next most numerous, numbered only 13 per cent.

Inasmuch as the Chinese worked for lower wages, it was natural that a division of labor should grow up, the Chinese being generally employed in certain occupations, while white persons were employed in other occupations which required skill, knowledge of English, and other qualities which the Chinese did not possess. Moreover, the most disagreeable work was ordinarily performed by the Chinese.

In some lines of industry they were not considered very efficient; for example, in the manufacture of cigars, or in that of boots and shoes; but in fruit, fish and vegetable canning, and in hand work in orchards and gardens, they, on account of the long hours and their faithfulness and care, became very skilful workers and were highly prized.

#### STANDARD OF LIVING

In the case of other employees, it was necessary to furnish board and lodging; the Chinese, however, provided their own subsistence. Furthermore, lodging was far more easily provided for them than for white men, as they were less dissatisfied than were the whites when put into small bunk-houses and closely crowded together.

#### ANTI-CHINESE FEELING

Shortly after their coming into California in large numbers, which was in the early days of the mining camps in California, agitation against them began. Soon, in order to check their coming, a miner's license was required of them, tho not exacted of other people. Somewhat later a similar license was exacted from them in the cigar trade and in other industries. The most important objection to them was race antipathy,

this being based upon color, language, habits; but, doubtless, in many cases their apparent readiness to underbid in wages had much to do with the feeling.

Not only in San Francisco, but in other towns in California, in Washington, in Wyoming and elsewhere, there was much opposition to the Chinese, and in a number of cases there were race riots, led mainly by the laboring men, but in many cases even the employers themselves joined in wishing to restrict Chinese immigration. Doubtless, the reasons affecting the well-to-do and employing classes were those already assigned, or the tendency toward the organization of a caste system where members of a race so different in habits of living and of so different ideas of life, and with so marked a difference of social customs, were employed. It was thought not desirable to have a separate class and especially a servile class, in the State.

### *Present Occupations of Chinese*

At the time the Chinese Exclusion Act went into effect, in 1882, it had been estimated that the number of Chinese in the United States was 132,300. This number did not lessen materially for a number of years, but recently, as has been said before, the number has materially decreased.

#### SALMON CANNERIES

During the year 1909 some 3,000 of the Chinese were employed in the salmon canneries in Oregon, Washington and Alaska, they having come largely from San Francisco and Portland. The number of Japanese was about the same. In most cases in this

industry a Chinese holds the contract for the work done, employing his countrymen mainly for the more skilled work, while the Japanese, under a Japanese boss, are given the work demanding less skill. In this industry the Chinese secure considerably higher wages than the Japanese; but in some cases, on account of the race feeling against Orientals, the companies refuse to employ any of them and now are using the European immigrants of the later immigration—Italians, Greeks and Portuguese.

#### RAILROADS

In railway work only a few Chinese are now employed, altho earlier many were in that industry as section hands; and in other occupations, they have now been largely replaced by Japanese, Mexicans and others.

#### AGRICULTURE

The Chinese formerly took a very active part in the growing of sugar beets. Of late they have been underbid and displaced by the Japanese, who are apparently more progressive and quicker. In the hop industry, in the same way, they have been underbid by the Japanese, who, in many cases, are fully as careful, possibly more rapid workers, and who also have a similar organization by which they can be engaged through one boss, a method which makes it very easy to deal with them. On the other hand, generally speaking, they are not so trustworthy as are the Chinese, so that where the option is given, the employer prefers a Chinese, even tho at somewhat higher wages.

In a good many localities the Chinese are still able



lease orchards, and where they can do so, or even where they are not themselves leaseholders, they are employed on many of the older ranches. In this industry, too, the Japanese have been gradually replacing the Chinese.

#### LAUNDRIES: MERCHANDISING

In many of the small towns in California and the other Western States, the Chinese are engaged in laundry work, in small merchandizing, and in conducting gambling houses. Formerly they were generally employed in domestic service. At the present time those employed in that capacity are mostly high-priced cooks in private families, in hotels and saloons. Inasmuch as they are so trustworthy, and, on the whole, skilful, and as their numbers are becoming fewer with the passing years, they doubtless, in many cases, receive wages much higher than the normal. At the present time, with the exception of a few large commercial enterprises, the Chinese are generally engaged in small retail businesses. On the whole the Chinese are becoming steadily a less important factor in industry than formerly, both on account of their decreasing numbers, and because it seems impossible for them to compete in many instances with the more aggressive Japanese.

### *The Japanese*

#### NUMBER

Before the year 1898 the number of Japanese immigrating to the continent of the United States was not large, it never having reached 2,000 in any one year. In 1900 the total number in the United States, ex-

cluding Alaska, was given in the census as 24,326. During the following years, however, the number of those arriving increased very rapidly, 14,455 coming in 1902, 20,041 in 1903, and 30,824 in 1917. In 1920, the Japanese numbered 111,025, of whom 70,196 resided in California. For a few years, after 1910, and as a result of the "gentlemen's agreement," Japanese immigration decreased, but during the latter years of this period again increased until an average of 10,000 a year is now entering.

The number varies considerably in localities in the different seasons, as many of them move from place to place to engage in the various kinds of industries. Considerably more than half of the entire number of Japanese are permanently located in California; 17,000 in Washington; after that, the largest numbers are found in Oregon and Colorado.

#### IMMIGRATION OF JAPANESE WOMEN

Unlike the Chinese, the Japanese are developing a family immigration. Japanese women are entering in greater numbers. Many of these married women have come as so-called "picture-brides." During the years 1911-1920, approximately 6,000 came into the United States through this marriage arrangement which is made through the parents, the intended bride having never seen her future husband and making her choice through photographs or pictures.

There are approximately 15,000 Japanese women in California at the present time.\* The 1920 census gives a total of 26,538 females of all ages as against 6,240 in 1910.

\* Report by State Board of Control on "California and the Oriental," page 40.

## ATTITUDE OF GOVERNMENTS

Until 1900, the Japanese came without any special objection on the part of their home government or of that of the United States. As it was apparently profitable, immigration companies were organized among the Japanese to facilitate their coming; and had some active efforts not been put forth by the United States Government, they would soon have been coming in much larger numbers. Since the year 1905, however, there has been an insistent demand in the western States, particularly in California, for the exclusion of Japanese. It is urged that the Japanese (many of whom are adults) should be separated from white children in the public schools, and, as is well known, in many instances there have been manifestations of an anti-Japanese sentiment.

Moreover, the Japanese Government itself under the circumstances did not care to encourage the emigration of its citizens to the United States. In consequence, it was comparatively easy for the United States Government to make an arrangement, in 1907, whereby thereafter the Japanese Government should issue passports only to such members of the laboring class as had been residents in this country and were returning here, or were parents, wives or children of residents of this country, or had already secured a right to agricultural land. Since February 5, 1920, the Japanese government has also prohibited the granting of passports to picture brides. The granting of passports to the non-laborers, that is to travelers, merchants, students, and others, remained as before. The immigration law of the United States was so amended as to give the President authority to exclude a race entering the continent

of the United States from any country, to the "detriment of labor conditions." The President, on March 14, 1907, denied admission to "Japanese and Korean laborers, skilled or unskilled, who have received passports to go to Mexico, Canada, Hawaii, and come therefrom" to the continental territory of the United States.

#### CANADA AND JAPAN

In 1908 an agreement was reached between Japan and Canada by which the number of passports to be granted in any one year to Japanese emigrating to Canada was limited to 400, and the Japanese Government has also stopt the practise of the emigration companies, of sending contract laborers to Mexico. In these ways, also, the immigration of Japanese into the United States has been checked, inasmuch as rather large numbers who have come to Mexico and Canada were in the habit of coming either openly or secretly from both countries into the United States. Since the year 1909 the total number of Japanese is, on the whole, decreasing in this country, more emigrating than are immigrating. Especially is this true of the laboring classes.

#### OCCUPATION

The great majority of the Japanese immigrants were doubtless at home small farmers or agricultural laborers. Most of them, when leaving home, were young men under twenty-five. In this country the great majority have been employed in unskilled construction work on railroads, and elsewhere as agricultural laborers, cannery hands, lumber-mill and logging-camp laborers. At times they engage in domestic

service and in business establishments managed by their own countrymen. Smaller numbers have been found in coal and ore mining, meat packing, and salt making. They have done comparatively little in the building trades, altho they have done some cabinet work, especially for their own countrymen. They have not done so much inside factory work, like cigar-making, as did the Chinese earlier, probably in part because of hostile race sentiment. Very many of the Japanese laborers are those who are ready to migrate from one section of the country to another, in order to meet the seasonal demand for laborers.

"Nearly 50 per cent. of Japanese immigrants are engaged in horticultural and agricultural industries, either as farmers or as farm hands, the latter predominating in number. There are doubtless several reasons for this state of affairs. For centuries the Japanese have been an agricultural race. Agricultural conditions in Japan have also made necessary a very intensive cultivation of available land, a method likely to be followed in this country by the Japanese. Japanese labor immigrants here were almost exclusively drawn from the agricultural classes of Japan."\* A considerable number are engaged in the fishing and lumbering industries along the Pacific Coast. Others are engaged in commercial pursuits, such as running restaurants.

### *Japanese Workmen*

In the report made by the Immigration Commission there were certain observations regarding the Japanese in industry, which may be briefly summarized:

\*"California and the Oriental," by the State Board of Control of California, from Yamato Ichihashi's "Japanese Immigration," p. 165.

## STRIKE-BREAKERS

The first employment of the Japanese in a good many cases has been as strike-breakers. This is especially true of coal mining in southern Colorado and Utah in 1903 and 1904, and later in the case of the smelting industry in Utah in 1907. Usually, however, they have been introduced to replace Chinese, or when the employers found it difficult to get a sufficient number of white men to work as common laborers at the rate of wages which had previously obtained.

## JAPANESE CONTRACTORS

The Japanese have been more readily employed because they were so easy to engage through the Japanese contractors, without inconvenience to the employers. These bosses usually undertake to provide any number of men required, to keep their time, pay them off, do interpreting, etc. Generally they receive an interpreter's fee of \$1.00 per month, and often make a commission on their earnings. In addition to that, of course, they secure certain advantages by dealing themselves directly with the men.

## WAGES

Usually the Japanese have worked for lower wages than have the members of any other race excepting the Mexicans and at times the Chinese. In the lumber industry other races have usually been paid higher wages than the Japanese doing the same kind of work, altho in some of the lumber mills in Vancouver, as learned by the personal investigation of the writer, the Japanese, where they have a rigid organization, have been paid higher wages than either the Chinese or the East Indians.



In 1907, where the Japanese were working in the mines they were finally accepted as members of the United Mine Workers, and in that way they secured the benefit of the standard wage from collective bargaining on the part of these unions with employers. Generally speaking, where serving as construction laborers on the railroads, they have received less than other races excepting the Hindus and the Mexicans. When the feeling arose against the Japanese on account of their arriving in so large numbers, and it seemed likely that hostile action would be taken, their contractors became much more skilful in bargaining, and gradually worked their wages up until frequently the difference between their wages and those paid to white men was very slight.

#### EFFICIENCY

Altho the Chinese and the Mexicans are sometimes preferred, the former, usually, on railroads, it seems that the road masters and section foremen generally prefer the Japanese to either Italians, Greeks, or Slavs, as section hands. Also in the railway shops they are usually given a higher rank than the Mexicans or Greeks, and at times, than the Italians. In salmon-canning, as has been noted above, the Chinese are considered much more desirable, and even the Filipinos are often preferred. Preference for the Chinese is not merely on account of the hostile feeling for the Japanese, but because they are more trustworthy in keeping their contracts and in doing their work with care. Usually when contracts are made with a Chinese contractor a stipulation is put in that the number of Japanese laborers shall be restricted to

a certain percentage named; generally they are not to exceed the number of Chinese.

#### RACE FEELING

In spite of these conditions, and the advantage that they sometimes have, they have in many cases found it difficult to advance. They are not employed, generally speaking, in the lumber industry, altho they have been employed in a good many individual establishments. Often in other industries where large groups of men are brought together, especially where the different races must work in association, the race prejudice against the Japanese is found to be a hindrance.

Because of the attitude of other laborers, and the fact that the Japanese have to be directed largely through an interpreter, they have usually been employed in unskilled work. Only rarely have they been given positions of supervision, or put into places of responsibility.

#### AGRICULTURE

There seems, on the whole, to be no tendency further for the Japanese to be engaging in manufacturing industries; rather they are turning more generally to agriculture. They now practically control the raising of certain classes of agricultural products in California, such as strawberries, asparagus, celery and tomatoes.

Approximately 40,000 Japanese are now engaged in agriculture in California alone. In most of the specialized intensive agriculture which prevails in many regions, they have a permanent position, occupying practically that held by the Chinese twenty years ago in similar industries. The Japanese do

practically all of the hand work in growing the various berries, two-thirds of that in the sugar-beet fields, possibly one-half of that in the vineyards, and a somewhat smaller part of that in the fields where vegetables are raised, and in the orchards. Generally speaking, in the raising of hops, they are not employed in so large numbers, and on general farms they are comparatively seldom employed. Usually, they are not given the care of teams, and do only hand-work. Wherever there has been specialized seasonal farming, the Japanese, being readily organized into gangs under a single contractor, are easily moved from place to place, and in consequence secure a large part of this specialized seasonal work. As already intimated, the Japanese have an advantage, as had the Chinese earlier, in that, where large numbers of men are to be employed for comparatively short periods of time, it is customary for the Japanese or the Chinese to board themselves and to take lodgings that would not be accepted by other laborers. This fact, with their organization, has made it easier for the grower to deal directly with the contractor and secure these people.

They were first engaged as fruit pickers about 1888 or 1889. By 1895 they had found employment in lines in which the Chinese had been engaged in every locality in California as far south as Fresno. Since 1900 they have gone into southern California, and since 1904 have been found in most localities in that part of the State also.

The Japanese have in many cases displaced the Chinese, and in some instances, at any rate, the white laborers. Usually at the beginning the Japanese worked for lower wages per hour, altho very fre-

quently, inasmuch as they worked at piece-dates and kept longer hours, their daily wage was higher.

#### ADVANCE OF JAPANESE LABORERS

During late years the wages of Japanese laborers have advanced rapidly, both in the agricultural industries and others. Wherever there has been a strong demand for labor, the Japanese have been quick to take advantage of the opportunity. In this regard their organization under contractors has aided them materially, especially in connection with the supply of seasonal labor. In very many cases it is reported that the Japanese are untrustworthy, and that after they have taken a contract, at a certain fixt wage per day, just before the time of the maturing of the crop, when it is too late to secure other labor, they have struck for higher wages and have forced the employers to pay more than the contract wage. Many such cases are cited in the papers in the discussions concerning restriction of land holding. By the adoption of measures of this kind, in certain cases they have been able to force their wages even above those of white men; but ordinarily, if they have received more than white men, it has been because they have worked longer hours, or because the work in its character is especially disagreeable.

#### FARM OWNERS AND LEASEHOLDERS

Within the last few years the Japanese have become, to a very considerable extent, farm owners, or have taken to leasing farms.

According to the latest figures the Japanese in 1919 cultivated through individuals or corporations 458,056 acres, an increase of 412.9 per cent. over 1909. In

some of the irrigated regions of the State, as in the counties of San Joaquin, Colusa, Placer, and Sacramento, the Japanese control from fifty to seventy-five per cent. of the total irrigated acres. The crop value produced by the Japanese in 1909 equalled \$6,235,856, in 1919, \$67,145,730. This production is largely made up of crops requiring intensive cultivation, such as berries, vegetables, grapes, melons and fruits. As a result of this tremendous increase in land acreage in Japanese hands, a more stringent Alien Land Holding Act was presented to the voters of the State in 1920. This act was drawn in such a way as to correct evasions that had grown up since the act of 1913. It was passed by a referendum vote with a majority of two to one.

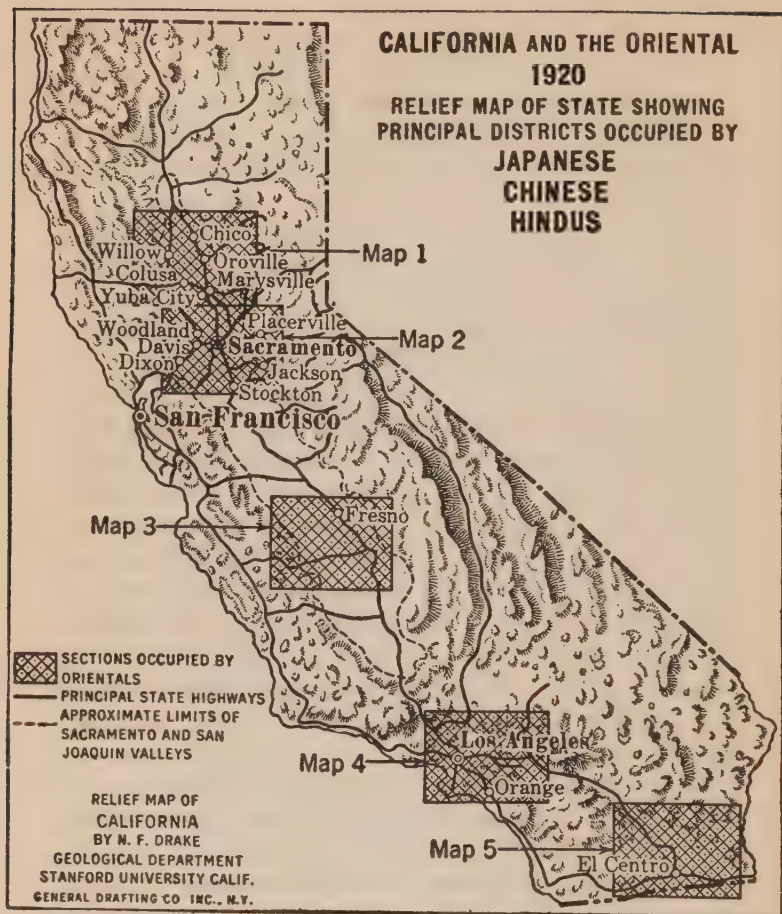
An investigation by the Immigration Commission which has been fully substantiated by the experiences of the last ten years shows that the farms fall regularly under the control of the race which controls the farm labor, especially in the case of the growing of sugar beets, vegetables and fruits. This advantageous position of the Japanese in the labor market has enabled them to secure land in this way in rather large tracts.

The conditions may be summed up as follows:

1. Because of the convenience of the tenant system and the difficulty experienced at times in securing laborers, there has been a strong inducement to lease land to a member of the race that could control labor most easily.

2. A further inducement has been found in the fact that both Chinese and Japanese especially the Japanese, in order to establish their position, have offered so high a rent that in that way the owner could get the best returns on his land.





A relief map of California, showing mountain ranges and the valley lands capable of intense cultivation. On this map five squares have been drawn, outlining five of the richest agricultural districts occupied by Orientals. The map shows considerable mountain areas, and of the valley lands there are but 3,893,500 acres now under irrigation. It is on these lands, the best in the State, that the Oriental has colonized and now occupies 623,752 acres, of which 458,056 acres are occupied by Japanese.\*

\* Reprinted from "California and the Oriental," published by the State Board of Control of California.



3. With the exception of one or two localities, the Japanese have been the strongest bidders for land, overbidding Chinese, Italians and native whites. Sometimes this bidding has been successful because they would cultivate land that white men would not lease for such small returns.

4. Much of the leasing is of the nature of a labor contract, under which the tenant does certain kinds of work and obtains a share of the crops. Recently, however, there has been a strong tendency for the Japanese to work independently either as cash tenants or as land owners.

5. Little capital has been required for the Japanese to become tenant farmers, because (1) they form partnerships readily among themselves; (2) the land owner often provides the necessary equipment for share tenants; (3) the shippers and others who wish to control the crops often advance money; so that many of the Japanese farmers have begun leasing with very little capital.

6. The leasing of land to the Japanese, as well as to Chinese and Italians, has resulted in displacing laborers of other races, partly because white persons in general are disinclined to work for them, or because they themselves prefer to employ persons of their own race.

7. The Japanese farmers usually pay to their Japanese laborers more than the local rate, but this is because the working day is longer, and because they are able to make a selection of the best men of their own race.

8. In growing strawberries, asparagus, and certain vegetables, the Japanese farmers have increased the acreage sometimes to so great an extent that the

industry has become unprofitable both to themselves and others.

9. Because they have a strong desire to remain independent of wages, and because there have been limitations placed upon the various occupations in which they may engage, the Japanese farmers have been ready to gain control of land even tho the prospect was for only a very small profit.

#### DOMESTIC SERVICE AND MERCHANDISING

The Japanese on the coast are employed somewhat as domestic servants, also as chauffeurs and hotel help. In the eastern cities the Japanese gravitate naturally to these occupations and are generally regarded as efficient, trustworthy servants. They have also to a considerable extent entered into trade, even in lines in which white men have been inclined to compete. Most of the Japanese establishments which compete with white people are run in good part by men who have formerly been wage laborers. More and more, also, they are showing an inclination to seek the patronage of Americans. In attempting to establish themselves, as a rule, they set up establishments on a small scale with only a few employees. They cater first largely to people of their own race as customers. In attempting to compete with the whites, they usually underbid in prices. Very few white persons are employed in Japanese establishments. Usually, where there is competition between the whites and the Japanese, the Japanese work longer hours and pay lower wages. They have, in a number of cases, succeeded in cutting into the business of shopkeepers, especially those located near the Japanese quarters of the city.

## ASSIMILATION

They have also shown considerable capacity for adopting American customs, much more so than the Chinese or even the Mexicans of the lower working class. They seem desirous to learn western ways and methods, and externally, at any rate, they conform to the customs of the time. They make very earnest efforts to learn English; they take up the studies that the Americans have in their schools; they adopt American dress; and altho in religion they are, as a rule, either free thinkers or Buddhists, still they make no opposition to the Christian faith, and a considerable number of them are professing Christians. It is thought by many that they often join the missions (and the Chinese are said to have done likewise) for the sake of obtaining good schooling at low rates, but presumably in many cases their belief in the Christian religion is sincere. In spite of this external assimilation they, nevertheless, beyond doubt, maintain their race characteristics to a greater degree than do most of the European races. The difference in color, in ideals particularly, perhaps their competition with laborers, have tended to put them, in the minds of most Americans, largely into the same class as the Chinese. There are very few cases of intermarriage, and in other ways the effort is made to hold them apart as a separate race, even when they themselves apparently manifest a strong desire for assimilation. And this effort appears to grow more earnest in expression and purpose, on the Pacific Coast, as time goes by, and seems not likely soon to change.

## ANTI-JAPANESE FEELING

Generally speaking, the Japanese, altho at first received with favor, are now looked upon with great dissatisfaction, especially in comparison with the Chinese. The Chinese are considered to be much more trustworthy workmen, much more faithful to their employers, uncomplaining, easily satisfied with living quarters, not ambitious to establish themselves as independent farmers, while the Japanese, on the other hand, are often inclined to take advantage of every opportunity to push themselves forward as regards wages and also socially, even at the expense of violating an existing contract. Apparently now, in California, the preference is strongly for Chinese, in case it should seem best to admit any Asiatic race, but such admission is not considered with general favor, probably never will be, in this generation. The recent laws against land holding in California and Arizona, while applying alike to all Orientals, were doubtless intended primarily to check the acts of the Japanese, who have been much more aggressive than the other Oriental races.

*The East Indians or Hindus*

## NUMBER

It is only of late years, especially since 1905, that the East Indians have come in large numbers into the United States. The Census of 1910 showed 2,545 persons in the United States who had been born in India; for 1920 the number was about the same, 2,540. These were nearly all of the student and business classes, and were largely settled in the Eastern States.

Beginning with a small immigration of 15 in 1899, the number increased gradually to 1,710 in 1908. In 1910, 1,782 entered, but since that date the number has been very small, generally under 100. The passage of the 1917 law with its barred Asiatic zone prevents all but students and travelers from entering. "The Hindu," in the opinion of the Commissioner of the State Bureau on Labor Statistics in California, "is the most undesirable immigrant in the State."\*

#### IMMIGRATION FROM CANADA

The beginning of the immigration to America was, as is perhaps natural, into Canada, a British Colony. They came first largely from the efforts of steamship agents and contractors who were employing laborers for British Columbia corporations. After arriving in British Columbia they had their attention turned toward the United States, partly on account of the warmer climate, more nearly like that to which they were accustomed, partly on account of the higher rates of wages; and after they had begun coming into the United States they, reporting back home to their friends, brought many others after them.

The Canadian authorities took rather rigid means of excluding them from coming in large numbers to Canada: first, by increasing the amount of money that they should have in their possession from \$25 to \$200; second, by not permitting them to come unless they came by direct route without change of ship, a matter that was almost impossible; third, in part also, by direct arrangements with the steamship companies.

\* "California and the Oriental," p. 101, issued by the State Board of Control of California.

## EXCLUSION AS LIABLE TO BECOME PUBLIC CHARGES

In the United States, inasmuch as they have been so disliked by the other working classes, and also by employers, it has been difficult for them to find work, so that the immigration authorities have felt justified in excluding many of them on the ground that they might become public charges, even tho they have \$25 or more in their possession and are in good physical condition. Altho 4,901 East Indians were admitted to the United States during the four years ending June 30, 1910, 1,597 were denied admission; 750 on the ground that they were likely to become public charges; 447 because they had trachoma; 112 because of loathsome or contagious disease; 177 on surgeon's certificate of mental or physical defects; 73 because they were contract laborers; 2 because idiotic; 2 criminals; 34 because they were polygamists.

## UNSKILLED LABORERS

Of those who were investigated by the Immigration Commission, it was found that 85 per cent. had been farmers and farm laborers in India. Of the others, some had been soldiers, some business men, and a somewhat larger number, laborers in other lines. Usually they have little money in their possession when they arrive, and come with the expectation of accumulating a fortune of some \$2,000, then going back to their native land. Some of them express dissatisfaction with the British Government in India, but it can by no means be said that they are fleeing from political oppression.

Usually they have come without their families, but



some, having decided to remain here, hope to have their families join them.

Usually they have been engaged in the roughest and most unskilled labor, outside factory walls, to a considerable extent in the lumber mills, sometimes on the railroads, sometimes in the sugar-beet fields, and many of them as hand laborers in fruit picking.

#### WAGES AND EFFICIENCY

Where they work in competition with the other races they have sometimes been paid higher wages than the Japanese—as a rule lower wages than white men, they not being recognized generally as a white race. In some cases, certainly in Canada, they have been considered less desirable laborers than either Japanese or Chinese. Physically they are weak as compared with white men, or with the Japanese; generally they are slow to understand instructions, and practically always they require close supervision. A goodly proportion of the 2,500 or so found in the United States are in California. Practically none of the laboring class are found outside of the Pacific Coast States. In some instances they have found employment without much difficulty, because the people desire to break the monopoly control of the labor supplied by the Japanese, or because the Japanese and the Chinese were demanding what they considered too high wages.

In many cases where there has been competition they have been willing to accept some 25 cents to 50 cents a day less than the Japanese. There seems to be little doubt that they are, on the whole, in the most insecure position of all the Asiatic races. Moreover, it seems likely that they are the most undesir-

able as workers, both on account of their physical and mental qualifications and of their habits of living.

#### STANDARD OF LIVING

The standard of living of the Hindus is lower than that of any of the races with whom they compete, altho, of course, where wages improve, their standard of living rises, if that may be judged by expenditure. Generally speaking, they are without families; they live in groups sometimes as large as 50; generally they are provided with free lodging in shacks or barns, if they are on farms; often they live in the open. They sleep in blankets on the floor or on the ground. On account of their caste system they often cook individually, or the members of each caste form a mess and have the food prepared by some one of their own number. They usually will not buy meat that has been prepared by other hands. They eat, therefore, for meat only poultry and lambs that they have butchered themselves. Many of them are vegetarians; those who are not, eat but little meat.

Edward A. Brown, Chief Sanitary Engineer for the State Commission of Immigration and Housing of California, states: "The Hindu standard of living is so vastly different from ours that it is difficult to present it properly. Their method of preparing food and serving is very primitive. Dishes, pots and pans are unnecessary in the life of a Hindu. Sanitary conveniences are unknown. The open ground is their dump for what little garbage they have, unscreened kitchens are the rule, open toilets and filthy camp grounds. Their sleeping quarters are, generally, very crowded, except where some religious rule provides privacy. (Note: This report is dealing with what is commonly

called Hindus, not Mohammedans, Afghans and the other sects.) Any kind of a shack will serve as living quarters for Hindus. When the camp inspectors compel Hindu operators to furnish living quarters fit for human habitation, they can not or do not want to understand. They believe the Hindu standard of living is good enough for their American employees. During the 1919 season we were compelled to prosecute eight Hindu camp operators for violation of the Camp Sanitation Act."\*

#### ASSIMILATION

They are not readily assimilated, and there seem to be practically none of the people on the Pacific Coast who are not opposed to their immigration, even more strongly opposed to them than to the Chinese, and possibly than to the Japanese.

#### *Conclusion*

#### DEMAND FOR LABOR

The conditions in the Western States, where the labor supply is, relatively speaking, much less than in the East, tend to lead one to arrive at an entirely different conclusion regarding immigration. It can not be said that there is an oversupply of immigrant labor that is tending to reduce the standard of living, as is clearly the case in the East.

#### EFFECT OF COMPETITION ON WAGES

On the other hand, there can be no doubt that in the case of the Japanese, particularly, and also of the Mexicans, there has been at times a direct scaling

\* "California and the Oriental," p. 109, issued by the State Board of Control of California.

down of the rate of wages in order to secure work. This, however, has been in exceptional cases. A much more serious charge is the one against the Japanese of securing labor to begin with by undercutting and then, after securing practically a monopoly of the labor supply in a locality, forcing wages in exceptional circumstances, by deliberate violation of contracts, to far above the normal rate, especially perhaps as hand laborers on fruit ranches. Often, too, as leaseholders, they are charged with undue cropping, to the serious detriment of the land. It is probable, however, that these charges are true in only exceptional cases, so far as the injury to the farms is concerned; but there can be no doubt that they have made both labor conditions and leasing conditions in many instances very difficult.

#### OBJECTIONS TO ORIENTAL IMMIGRATION—SOCIAL, POLITICAL

The chief objection, however, to all of these races comes from the social and assimilative viewpoint. We must grant that, in a good many instances, they have taken an active part in developing industries, especially fish canning and intensive agriculture; but in some cases these industries have been developed on the whole to the detriment of labor conditions in the localities.

Altho they have developed the farming industry in certain cases, in others, by holding control of the labor market and by their severe terms of lease, they have doubtless prevented the coming in of members of white races who might be more easily assimilated.

Moreover, unpleasant as the fact may be, race feeling, not to say race prejudice, has been so strong

on the Pacific Coast that in many cases they have brought about serious race conflicts which have been very troublesome from the international point of view as well as from the viewpoint of developing civilization.

Altho there are certain classes of employers that, for the sake of a more rapid development of industry, favor a limited immigration of Asiatics, not only on the Pacific Coast, but throughout the country, the feeling is, generally speaking, against such further immigration. The Immigration Commission thought it wise to recommend that no changes be made in the laws regarding the immigration of Chinese and Japanese, and that the United States Government take up with the British Government the question of practically excluding the East Indians. It seems probable, all things considered, that this is the wisest policy for Congress to adopt.

#### THEY PREVENT IMMIGRATION OF WHITE RACES

Another special reason why this should be done is that the presence of these races in large numbers on the coast doubtless prevents the migration from eastern cities of white immigrants, for there seems to be little doubt that if the number of Asiatics decrease, the moving in of families from the East and the Middle West will be to a very considerable extent stimulated. Moreover, after the completion of the Panama Canal, there is good reason to believe that Italians and Portuguese in considerable numbers will come directly from their home countries for work along the Pacific Coast. In spite of the criticism of the immigrants from Southern and Eastern Europe, there is every reason to believe that they are much more easily

assimilated than are the Asiatics, and that in a comparatively short time they will become available as part of the general labor supply and prove to be, both as laborers and as citizens, more satisfactory than the Asiatics.



## XIV

### IMMIGRATION POLICIES OF OTHER COUNTRIES

#### *Immigration a World Problem*

Americans have been inclined to look upon immigration solely as a domestic problem. Events have occurred within the last few years, however, which are bringing home to Americans the realization that immigration is a world problem, certain aspects of which may lead eventually to serious difficulties between nations, especially to those countries bordering on the Pacific. Immigration policies adopted by other countries may vitally affect the future of America. For example, this country would view with apprehension a great migration of Orientals to Mexico or South America. Policies adopted by Canada, Australia, South Africa or South American countries are of interest to the United States on account of our own Oriental immigration problems on the Pacific Coast.

The continued agitation for racial equality on the part of the Japanese is of concern to all the world. In order to appreciate fully the difficult population questions which are arising for solution the world over, Americans must know something of the powerful forces motivating migrations. Superficially the conference for the limitation of armaments called by President Harding may seem to be that of reducing the number of battleships to be built, or the settling of

questions arising out of the war, such as Yap and Shantung; but fundamentally the conference will have to deal with questions of population, racial aspirations, and standards of living. Around the Pacific is a new stirring of racial movements and aspirations. Russians, Chinese, Japanese, Malays, Dutch, British, Anzacs, Canadians and Americans are touching each other on the vast brim of the Pacific and are looking with apprehension at the many racial difficulties which are arising. Antagonisms are being engendered, policies are being pursued in this mighty caldron of conflicting forces which may in the future lead to another great war. It is important for Americans to study and to understand these racial problems, more particularly the immigration policies of the most important countries bordering on the Pacific. In this chapter a brief statement is given, outlining the policies of Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa.

### *Canada*

Sir William Van Horne, formerly President of the Canadian Pacific Railroad, once said at a political meeting that the last century was America's, the present century Canada's. He wished to bring out by this statement that Canada was at the threshold of an economic development similar to the one enjoyed by America in the past century.

Canada with its nine provinces and two territories covering an area of 3,729,665 square miles, is twice the size of India, equal to the whole of Europe, and slightly larger than the continental United States, exclusive of Alaska. While three hundred and thirty times the size of Belgium, eighteen times the size of

Germany and seventy-five times the size of Japan, Canada has, in contrast to their teeming millions, a population of only 8,000,000 people. It is a territory wonderfully rich in undeveloped resources. It needs but the magic combination of capital and population to make it one of the greatest and strongest of nations. Furthermore, this Dominion wishes to become a great nation, and has already formulated very definite ideas of the kind of great nation it would become, even to the character of the people with which it hopes to settle its vast domain.

### *The Essentials of Canada's Immigration Policy*

On account of the competition offered by the United States with its better-known attractions and opportunities, Canada has built up an immigration policy founded on encouragement and advertising. Its scheme has permeated the remotest corners of the British Isles as well as northern and western Europe. Naturally, with such a vast agricultural territory awaiting settlement, the Canadians have emphasized in their advertising the need of farmers and farm laborers, and the opportunities extended to settlers with agricultural tendencies. With only eight millions of people on which to build the future Canadian stock, the Dominion has attempted to keep the immigrant tide preponderantly British, or at least American and western European. Before the war, from 300,000 to 400,000 immigrants were coming to Canada yearly. If this influx had been largely from southern and eastern Europe, the racial composition of Canada would have been completely adulterated; and against such a catastrophe the Canadians have directed their immigration policy backed by stringent laws.

## CANADA NOT A HAVEN

The Canadians have never looked upon their country as a haven for the surplus population of other countries. Nor have they fostered the idea that immigration to Canada will relieve the ills of other countries. On the contrary, Canada looks upon immigration as a purely domestic problem which she herself must control absolutely by designating those who may enter. Canada has taken a strong stand on the question of Asiatic immigration exclusion, even going so far as to exclude British Indians, who come from another part of the British Empire.

The corner-stones of the Canadian immigration policy are:

1. To encourage a type of immigrant who will develop the vast agricultural resources of the country;
2. To keep Canada British in character and allegiance; and
3. To exclude the Oriental.

## ADVERTISING PROPAGANDA

The Canadian Government has developed a systematic program of advertising, including a corps of paid agents in those countries wherein desirable immigrants may be secured. Paid agents have been stationed in the most important cities of the British Isles and northern and western Europe, such as London, Liverpool, Manchester, Glasgow, Paris, Antwerp, Rotterdam and Brussels. In the United States salaried agents are employed in sixteen of the largest cities. In addition a group of sub-agents are utilized who

receive \$3 for each man, \$2 for each woman, and \$1 for each child, who becomes a genuine settler in western Canada. These bonuses, during the years 1905-1909, were paid on 5.6 per cent. of the immigrants going from the United States to Canada. In the British Isles and other European countries there are several thousand agents, who receive £1 for each person eighteen years of age or over, and ten shillings (\$2.43) for persons between one and eighteen years of age.

In addition to these paid agents, circulars prepared in several languages setting forth the opportunities in Canada, advertisements in newspapers and other publications, permanent exhibits of Canadian farm products and traveling exhibits to agricultural fairs, are used to stimulate the right kind of immigration. A few years ago fifty-five delegates, who had had successful careers in agricultural pursuits in the western part of Canada, were sent to the British Isles, where they narrated their personal experiences and explained their achievements. Other agencies, such as the Salvation Army, have also been used to recruit immigrants in England. It is said that in recent years the Salvation Army has been responsible for securing 100,000 immigrants to Canada, although at times questions have been raised regarding the character of some of the immigrants sent out by this agency.

#### EXPENDITURES

From 1898 to 1908 Canada expended \$6,779,832 on its immigration Service. Of this amount \$2,500,433 was spent in Canada; \$1,936,000 in the United States; \$1,643,000 in the United Kingdom; and \$700,000 in Europe. During the decade from 1910 to 1920 Cana-

da spent nearly \$12,000,000 in promoting and regulating immigration. During the first decade 1,244,597 immigrants entered the country; during the last decade, 2,177,072. It is very interesting to note that during the first decade 502,264 of the immigrants were British, 393,908 American, and the rest European. Despite the expenditure during this period of over \$700,000 in northern and western Europe, more immigrants came from southern and eastern Europe than from the rest of Europe. Austria-Hungary sent nearly 95,000 immigrants, Italy nearly 50,000 and Russia about 38,000, as compared with 14,119 from Sweden, 10,259 from Norway, 12,468 from France, and only 6,110 from Belgium. This would indicate that outside of the immigration from the British Isles the same swing to the southern and eastern parts of Europe is going on in Canadian immigration as had gone on in the immigration to the United States.

#### THE CANADIAN LAW

The Canadian Immigration Law is based largely on that of the United States. In 1910, after a great deal of agitation, a very comprehensive law was put in force. The experience of the last decade showed the need for many improvements; so a new law was passed in 1919. This law in many ways reads like the United States law and includes many of its provisions, such as the literacy clause and the exclusion of certain classes of immigrants. The prohibited classes are as follows:\*

\* Smith's "Study in Canadian Immigration," pp. 354-357. Also found under Section III, of the Canadian Immigration Law.



"a. Idiots, imbeciles, feeble-minded persons, epileptics, insane persons and persons who have been insane at any time previously;

"b. Persons afflicted with tuberculosis in any form or with any loathsome disease, or with a disease which is contagious or infectious, or which may become dangerous to the public health;

c. Immigrants who are dumb, blind, or otherwise physically defective, unless in the opinion of a Board of Inquiry, or officer, acting as such, they have sufficient money or other legitimate mode of obtaining a living as to preclude them becoming a public charge;

d. Persons who have been convicted of, or admit having committed, any crime involving moral turpitude;

e. Prostitutes and women and girls coming to Canada for any immoral purpose and pimps or persons living on the avails of prostitution;

f. Persons who procure or attempt to bring into Canada prostitutes or women or girls for the purpose of prostitution or other immoral purpose;

g. Professional beggars or vagrants;

h. Immigrants whose passage to Canada has been aided in part or whole by charitable organizations, except under the authority of the Deputy Minister, or for Europe, that of the Assistant Superintendent of Immigration for Canada, in London;

i. Persons who do not comply with the conditions of entrance, such as possessing the requisite amount of money, traveling by continuous journey, etc.;

j. Persons likely to become a public charge;

k. Persons of constitutional psychopathic inferiority;

l. Persons with chronic alcoholism;

m. Persons other than those specified in the foregoing who are certified upon examination by a medical officer as being mentally or physically defective to such a degree as to affect their ability to earn a living;

n. Persons who believe in or advocate the overthrow by force or violence of the Government of Canada or of constituted law and authority, or who disbelieve in or are

opposed to organized government, or who advocate the assassination of public officials, or who advocate or teach the unlawful destruction of property;

o. Persons who are members of or affiliated with any organization entertaining or teaching any of the matters mentioned in the preceding statement (n);

p. Enemy aliens or persons who have been alien enemies and who were or may be interned on or after the eleventh day of November, one thousand nine hundred and eighteen, in any part of His Majesty's dominions or by any of His Majesty's allies;

q. Persons guilty of espionage with respect to His Majesty or any of His Majesty's allies;

r. Persons who have been found guilty of high treason or treason for an offence in connection with the war, or of conspiring against His Majesty or of assisting His Majesty's enemies during the war, or of any similar offence against any of His Majesty's allies;

s. Persons who at any time within a period of ten years from the first day of August, one thousand nine hundred and fourteen, were or may be deported from any part of His Majesty's dominions or from any allied country on account of treason or of conspiring against His Majesty, or of any similar offence in connection with the war against any of the allies of His Majesty, or because such persons were or may be regarded as hostile or dangerous to the allied cause during the war;

t. Persons over fifteen years of age, physically capable of reading, who cannot read the English or the French language or some other language or dialect: Provided that any admissible person or any person heretofore or hereafter legally admitted, or any citizen of Canada, may bring in or send for his father or grandfather, over fifty-five years of age, his wife, his mother, his grandmother, or his unmarried or widowed daughter, if otherwise admissible, whether such relative can read or not and such relative shall be permitted to enter."

The most striking feature of the Canadian Immigration Law, and the one in which it differs most

widely from the United States Law, is its elasticity. Through certain elastic provisions, emergencies or changed conditions can be met at once, pending the passage of permanent legislation. The sections covering this feature are as follows:

“Regulations made by the governor in council under this act may provide as a condition to permission to land in Canada that immigrants and tourists shall possess in their own right money to a prescribed minimum amount, which amount may vary according to the race, occupation, or destination of such immigrant or tourist, and otherwise, according to the circumstances; and may also provide that all persons coming to Canada directly or indirectly from countries which issue passports or penal certificates to persons leaving such countries shall produce such passports or penal certificates on demand of the immigration officer in charge before being allowed to land in Canada.

The governor in council may, by proclamation or order whenever he deems it necessary or expedient—

a. Prohibit the landing in Canada or at any specified port of entry in Canada of any immigrant who has come to Canada otherwise than by continuous journey from the country of which he is a native or naturalized citizen, and upon a through ticket purchased in that country, or prepaid in Canada;

b. Prohibit the landing in Canada of passengers brought to Canada by any transportation company which refuses or neglects to comply with the provisions of this act

c. Prohibit or limit in number for a stated period or permanently the landing in Canada or the landing at any specified port or ports of entry in Canada, of immigrants belonging to any nationality or race, or of immigrants of any specified class or occupation by reason of any economic, industrial or other condition temporarily existing in Canada, or because such immigrants are deemed unsuitable having regard to the climatic, industrial, social, educational, labor or other conditions or requirements of Canada, or

because such immigrants are deemed undesirable, owing to their peculiar customs, habits, modes of life and methods of holding property, and because of their probable inability to become readily assimilated or to assume the duties and responsibilities of Canadian citizenship within a reasonable time after their entry.”\*

These provisions have been used in a number of striking cases. During the winter of 1920-1921, when the industrial depression which had been sweeping over the world struck Canada, they were construed in such a way as to restrict immigration drastically. The amount of money needed in the case of a man over eighteen years of age was raised to the sum of \$250. In case he had a family, he himself had to have \$250, the other members of his family over eighteen, \$125 each and \$50 was required for each child five to eighteen years of age. Under certain conditions exemptions were granted to these requirements.

At another time the law was utilized to force American steamship companies to return immigrants to the country from which they came when rejected at the Canadian border. Many Canadian immigrants come through the ports of Portland, Boston and New York. If suffering from disabilities, they are rejected at the Canadian border, the railroad and steamship lines bringing them being responsible for their return passage. In this particular instance the steamship companies would not take back such immigrants. An Order in Council was passed prohibiting the “entrance in Canada of any immigrants arriving on the steamships of any company which refused to return such rejected immigrants.” This had the effect expected and within a very short time the steamship companies

\* Canadian Immigration Law, 1919.

operating to these ports made the desired agreement with the Canadian Government.

This elastic provision in the Canadian law has also been used to exclude immigrants by race. Owing to the reluctance of certain groups in the western provinces to become citizens and to school their children under the Canadian educational laws, an Order in Council was passed on June 9, 1919, that "persons commonly known as Doukhobors, Hutterites and Mennonites" were excluded. On the same date an Order in Council was passed prohibiting the landing in Canada of immigrants who had been alien enemies during the war. This, of course, applies to Germany, Bulgaria, Turkey and Austria-Hungary. It does not apply, however, to the subjects of those races who have secured their freedom through the Paris treaty.

The adaptability of the Canadian Law has also been found valuable in meeting sudden emergencies arising in connection with Asiatic Immigration. One of these orders states that "From and after the date hereof the landing in Canada shall be and the same is hereby prohibited of any immigrants who have come to Canada otherwise than by continuous journey from the country of which they are natives or citizens and upon through tickets purchased in that country or purchased or prepaid in Canada." This Order in Council has been very effective in preventing Hindu immigration from entering Canada.

#### CANADA AND THE ORIENTAL

Canada in common with the United States has an Asiatic problem. We think of California when we speak of the Oriental. The Canadian thinks of British Columbia when he speaks of the Oriental. British



Columbia has borne the brunt of Asiatic immigration. According to the census of 1911 there were 27,774 Chinese in Canada, 19,568 of whom were in British Columbia. At the same time there were 9,021 Japanese, of whom 7,894 were in the Pacific province. Practically all of the Hindus are also located there.

Naturally, the first Canadian opposition, as in the United States, came from the Pacific. In 1900, when the British Columbians found that 12 per cent. of their population was Asiatic and saw the tide increasing in numbers, a local restriction act was passed which practically excluded all Asiatics. This act was disallowed by the Governor General. British Columbia retaliated by passing similar acts in 1902, 1903, 1904 and 1905, all of which received the same treatment. The persistence of the British Columbians, however, at last won federal recognition and national restrictions were adopted. These restrictions have had the effect of greatly reducing Hindu and Japanese immigration, but the Chinese have increased in spite of the restraints. The figures of Chinese immigration show the strength and the persistence of this race to get in if any loophole of admission is given.\*

Different measures have been adopted to meet the immigration of each of these Oriental groups. This is very similar to the American method, which meets the Chinese by an exclusion act, the Japanese by a "gentlemen's agreement" and the Hindu by a barred zone. The Hindu immigration to Canada in many ways was the most difficult to meet since exclusion involved a question of the rights of British subjects to move from one part of the Empire to another. The

\* See table on p. 273.



*Oriental Immigration to Canada*

	1904	1905	1906	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911
Hindu.....		45	387	2,124	2,623	6	10	5
Japanese.....	6	354	1,922	2,042	2,061	495	271	437
Chinese.....	9	.....	18	92	1,884	1,887	2,156	5,278
Total.....	15	399	2,327	4,258	6,568	2,388	2,437	5,720

	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	Total
Hindu.....	3	5	88	0	1	0	0	5,297
Japanese.....	765	724	856	592	401	648	883	12,457
Chinese.....	6,247	7,445	5,512	1,258	*88	393	*769	*33,036
Total.....	7,015	8,174	6,456	1,850	490	1,041	1,652	*50,790

\* W. G. Smith's "Study in Canadian Immigration." Lack of transportation facilities accounts for reduced numbers.

These figures clearly illustrate the affect of Canadian immigration legislation on Oriental immigration to that country. Hindu immigration, starting with only forty-five in 1905, rapidly increased in the short space of a year or two. The Canadian Government met the situation with such drastic and effective laws and orders that only a handful have been allowed to enter since 1908. Japanese immigration also began to increase rapidly at about the same time. The Canadian-Japanese immigration agreement stopt this movement at once, and in no year since 1905 has the number of Japanese entering amounted to more than nine hundred. Chinese immigration, however, up to the time of the War, was steadily increasing in numbers despite the legislation in force.

Honorable W. L. Mackenzie King, who had been chosen a commissioner to investigate the subject, was sent to England to confer with the British authorities. First, the agreement arrived at was that the native of India was not regarded as "a person suited to this country; that accustomed as many of them are to the conditions of a tropical climate, and possessing manners and customs so unlike those of our own people, their inability to adapt themselves readily to surroundings entirely different could not do other than entail an amount of privation and suffering which render a discontinuance of such immigration most desirable in the interests of the Indians themselves."\*

Second, the old Indian immigration act of 1863 was revived. This act was found to provide that "emigration in the sense of the departure by sea out of British India of a native of India, under an agreement to labor for hire in some country beyond the limits of India, other than the Island of Ceylon or the Straits Settlements, is not lawful except to countries specified in the schedule of the Act, 'and to such other countries as the Governor in Council from time to time by notification declares to be countries to which emigration is lawful. Every such notification must contain a declaration that the Governor-General in Council has been duly certified that the government of the country to which the notification refers has made such laws and other provisions as the Governor-General in Council thinks sufficient for the protection of immigrants to that country during their residence therein.'" Hence, unless the Canadian Government made the necessary laws, to

\* W. G. Smith, "Study in Canadian Immigration," p. 161.

the satisfaction of the Government of India, for the protection of Indian emigrants, such emigration as that which had taken place from India to Canada was not lawful.

Third, the amount of money which immigrants were required to have in their possession, namely twenty-five dollars was, in the case of the Hindus, raised to \$200.

Fourth, the final and adequate means was the application to Hindu immigrants of section 38 of the Immigration Act which required that "any immigrants who have come to Canada otherwise than by continuous journey from the countries of which they are natives or citizens, and upon through tickets purchased in that country, may be excluded. Since there was no means by which a continuous journey from India to Canada could be accomplished, the last provision was peculiarly efficient, and Hindu immigration practically ceased. All of which means that while Canada does not expressly exclude Hindu emigrants, the regulations are such as to actually achieve that result."\*

Later at an Imperial Conference the power was given to individual countries of the Empire to control immigration as each country saw fit. This practically abrogated the right of a British subject to pass freely from one country to another. This is extremely interesting in view of the Japanese proposal to the League of Nations regarding racial equality. Racial equality is not recognized in the British Empire, insofar as it means the entrance of one race into the country of another. In fact, the recognition of this right would eventually mean the disruption of the British Empire.

\* W. G. Smith, "Study in Canadian Immigration, pp. 162-163.

## JAPANESE EXCLUSION

The movement to exclude Japanese from Canada culminated shortly after the United States had settled its troubles in California in 1907. In fact the action of the United States had a great deal to do with the diversion of Japanese immigration to British Columbia. During ten months of the year 1910, 8,125 Japanese entered British Columbia; 900 of them were sent by a Japanese emigration company. All of these immigrants entered Canada through Vancouver. The British Columbians at once demanded action, riots took place and the Canadian Government sent a special commissioner to investigate and arrange for a settlement of the difficulties. Japan then made with Canada arrangements similar to those which she made with the United States. This "gentlemen's agreement" limited the number of Japanese immigrating to Canada to about 400 annually, although within the last few years the number entering has been around eight hundred.

## CHINESE RESTRICTION

The Chinese were the first Orientals to enter Canada; and today they constitute the largest number of Asiatics in that country. The most important restriction put upon the Chinese has been a heavy head-tax. This tax was increased from year to year until 1904, when it was fixed at \$500; but despite it, Chinese immigration was greatly augmented up to the year 1914, at which time it declined on account of the scarcity of passenger ships. At the present writing, 1921, it is again on the increase.

## NATURALIZATION OF THE ASIATIC

Canada, in contrast to the United States, allows the Asiatic to be naturalized. The 1911 census gives some very interesting figures regarding the eagerness with which the Oriental avails himself of such an opportunity. In 1911, of the 23,586 Chinese males twenty-one years of age and over, only 2,144 had become naturalized. Of the 6,669 Japanese only 1,491 had availed themselves of the privilege. These figures indicate that neither the Japanese nor the Chinese are strongly inclined to change their allegiance.

*The Problem of Australia*

Australia has in many respects an immigration problem similar to that of Canada. A vast continent sparsely populated, Australia faces the task of drawing to her shores a suitable population from other lands. As in Canada only a few million people must bear the impact of these newcomers. Australia, in consequence, is vitally interested in the racial composition of immigration, which as in Canada is largely non-Anglo-Saxon would in the course of a few years completely supplant the British. Australians, as are the Canadians, are also interested in securing people who will develop the land, who will build up the vast spaces of this most thinly populated of civilized countries. With 2,974,581 square miles of territory and a population of only 5,217,019 in 1919, Australia has 1.80 people to the square mile. In contrast, Europe has



122.98; the United Kingdom, 351.04; France, 191.74; Asia, 54.45; Africa, 11.36; South America, 8.21; China, 81.93; British India, 223.47; Japan, 298.13; Straits Settlements, 513.04; New Zealand, 11.71; Canada, 2.30; Brazil, 8.39; Argentina, 7.18; and the United States, 35.39. Thus we see that the great countries receiving immigrants are the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and South America—all countries with a low ratio of man to land.\*

On account of Australia's distance from other countries she has had some immigration difficulties not found in any other country. On the other hand, she has also escaped some. Due to the distance and the expense of travel, Australia has never attracted the type of immigrant which depends upon quick, easy and cheap transportation. She has only attracted a high type of immigrant. In consequence, the population of Australia is fundamentally British. Australia is a transplanted Britain, very much more so than Canada, which has a mixed population. It is interesting to note the effect of a new social and economic environment upon these overseas Britishers. Those who met the Australians in France recognize that these transplanted Anglo-Saxons have already undergone great changes, both physical and mental. Due to physical barriers, Australia has also had difficulty in building up a steady tide of immigration. At no time has the excess of immigration over emigration been very large. The statistics by five year periods are as follows:

\* Statistics on Australia taken from the "Official Year Book of the Commonwealth of Australia," 1901-1919.



1861-1865.....	86,146
1866-1870.....	80,419
1871-1875.....	61,662
1876-1880.....	130,142
1881-1885.....	224,040
1886-1890.....	158,701
1891-1895.....	22,392
1896-1900.....	2,487
1901-1905.....	16,793
1906-1910.....	57,278
1911-1915.....	99,393
1916-1919.....	24,016*

It is estimated that about 20 per cent. of the Australian population in 1911 was due to immigration and 80 per cent. had come from the net growth in population.

The number entering Australia year by year has varied greatly. During the period of assisted immigration considerable numbers entered. When gold was discovered between the years 1851 and 1861 a heavy immigration went to the state of Victoria. Drought and bad crops have at other times induced a heavy emigration. All in all the task of Australia to induce immigrants to make the long journey necessary has been a difficult one and relatively speaking, as compared to Canada and the United States, the Australian immigration has been small.

Australia, although a great distance from countries inhabited by whites, is comparatively near Asia and many Pacific Islands. Normally, the surplus of population in these countries would have been diverted by the millions to Australia. In fact, fear of a vast Asiatic immigration is always before the Australians,

\* War period.

and has led to the introduction of drastic restrictions calculated to prevent such migration.

Australia has two cardinal points in its immigration policy:

1. To secure a suitable type of white agricultural immigrant, British preferred; and
2. To exclude Asiatics.

#### ASSISTED IMMIGRATION

In the early days prior to federalization, the several colonies that later made up the Australian Commonwealth vigorously pursued a policy of assisting immigration. Up to 1919 a total of 839,792\* assisted immigrants, entered the Dominion and the various states of the Commonwealth. In order to induce settlers to take up unoccupied land the Australian Government allows them to purchase freeholds by the payment of small half yearly instalments upon liberal terms. In some of the states advances are made for improvements. Some of the states continue to induce immigration by paying the passage of those desiring to settle on the land with the avowed purpose of doing farm work, dairy work, or domestic service. Australia desires mostly agricultural settlers with small capital, who will devote themselves to the development of the farming area of the country. An agreement has recently been reached whereby the Federal Government now has control of all organizations and transport arrangements for bringing immigrants to Australia. One hundred thousand pounds was appropriated for 1920-1921. The individual states will be responsible for the reception of the immigrants.

\* "Australian Year Book," 1901-1919, p. 102.

**THE AUSTRALIAN POPULATION ALMOST PURELY BRITISH**

The Australian population is almost entirely British and forms one of the purest colonial peoples in existence. In 1911, 82.90 per cent. of the Australians were Australian born, to a large extent British; 13.35 per cent. had been born in the United Kingdom; other European races supplied 2 per cent. and the Asiatics constituted 0.82 per cent.

**THE AUSTRALIAN LAW**

Under the Australian law the following classes of persons are prohibited from entering the Commonwealth:

"1. Any person who fails to pass the dictation test; that is, who fails to write out not less than 50 words of a language prescribed by the regulation, when dictated to him by an officer administering the act.

2. Any person likely to become a charge upon the public.

3. Any idiot or insane person.

4. Any person suffering from an infectious or contagious disease of a loathsome or dangerous character.

5. Any person who has been convicted of an offence, other than a mere political offence, and has been sentenced to imprisonment for one year or longer and has not served his sentence or received a pardon.

6. Any prostitute or person living on the prostitution of others.

7. Any person not possessed of the prescribed certificate of health.

The act of 1901 provided that the dictation test should be in a European language. The act of 1905 provided that a European language should continue to be used until regulations be passed prescribing the languages for the test. Such regulations have not been passed, so a European language continues to be employed. This test, however, has never been imposed upon European immigrants.

The contract immigrants act, 1905, defines a contract immigrant as an immigrant to Australia under a contract

or agreement to perform manual labor in the Commonwealth. No such immigrant will be admitted to Australia except upon the following conditions: The contract must be in writing and must be made by or on behalf of a resident of Australia. Its terms must be approved by the Minister of External Affairs. It must not be made in contemplation of or with a view of affecting an industrial dispute. The Minister must be satisfied that there exists a difficulty of obtaining a worker of equal skill and ability in the Commonwealth. This last provision does not apply to contract immigrants who are British subjects, either born in the United Kingdom or descended from persons born there. The terms of the contract must offer to the immigrants advantages equal to those of local workers. This act does not apply to domestic servants and personal attendants accompanying their employers to Australia.

More recent laws, especially that of 1912, have not modified in any essential manner these provisions of the law.

Altho the immigration law of the Commonwealth embodies a plan of rigid exclusion, it bears heavily only on a small per cent. of immigrants. There are two clauses in it which permit discrimination in favor of immigrants who are desired. Section 3 provides that 'any person possessed of a certificate of exemption in force for the time being in the form in the schedule, signed by the Minister or by any officer appointed under this act, whether within or without the Commonwealth,' may enter Australia even tho he is one of the prohibited classes. This certificate shall be good only for a specified period.

Even greater elasticity is given to the law by section 4A, which allows the Minister for External Affairs to make an arrangement with the government of any country regulating the admission to the Commonwealth of the subjects or citizens of that country whereby the subjects and citizens of that country shall not be required to pass the dictation test. The arrangement must be sanctioned by resolutions of both Houses of the Parliament."\*

\* Volume 40 of the Reports of the United States Immigration Commission, pp. 167-169. Complete information also to be found in Australian Year Book, 1901-1918, pp. 1166-1170.

The proportion of immigrants to Australia to whom admission is refused is relatively small. The dictation test is not required of British and European races. In the case of these immigrants the educational test is waived. From the years 1902 to 1907, 1,090 immigrants were refused admission. Of these 746 were Chinese, 23 Hindu, 17 Filipino, 15 Cingalese, 19 Japanese, 17 Pacific Islanders, 17 Tonquinese and 16 West Indians. Of the numbers of the Asiatic races rejected all but two were refused admission because of failure to pass the dictation test. During the whole period considered, only five persons were rejected for insanity, one for criminality and none for disease. This indicates that the sole purpose of the dictation test is to exclude Asiatics.\* From 1911 to 1919 only 778 immigrants were rejected, a large number of them also being Asiatics.

#### AUSTRALIAN NATURALIZATION

Naturalization in Australia is vested in the Federal Government. In order to become a citizen an applicant must not be an aboriginal native of Asia, Africa or islands of the Pacific, except New Zealand. He must give notice of his intention to settle in the country, must have already resided there two years and printed a newspaper advertisement that he wishes to become a citizen. He must also have certificates of character from three natural-born British subjects and he must be able to read and write English.

The naturalization law also allows the Governor-

\* Volume 40, p. 171, Report of the United States Immigration Commission.

General in Council to grant or withhold or revoke a naturalization certificate, with or without assigning any reason, if contrary to the public good. From 1915 to 1919 only 5 Chinese were naturalized. Of the Japanese during the same period only one was admitted to citizenship. This would indicate that the Asiatic is excluded from citizenship, not directly but at least indirectly, by the Australian law.

### LAND SYSTEMS IN AUSTRALIA

The states of Australia have a great many restrictions upon the ownership of land, especially by Asiatics. In New South Wales, Queensland, South Australia, Western Australia and Tasmania restrictions are imposed upon tenure of land by aliens. In Queensland the prospective applicant for land must furnish a certificate that he is able to read and write from dictation words in such language as the Minister of Lands may direct. He must also within five years become a naturalized subject. This, of course, operates to exclude Asiatics. In South Australia, Asiatics are prohibited from holding perpetual leases of land in irrigation areas. Under the Aliens Act of 1913, aliens cannot hold real estate, although if a subject of a friendly state they may occupy land for a period not exceeding twenty-one years. Only in Victoria are there no restrictions. In Western Australia, the leasing or owning of land is subject to the approval of the Minister of Lands.\*

\* "California and the Oriental," p. 67, published by the State Board of Control of California. Also page 266 of the "Australian Year Book," 1901-1919.



*New Zealand*

New Zealand's immigration problem is similar to Australia's. The New Zealand policy centers upon securing British immigrants and excluding Asiatics. At the present time, New Zealand, as a result of such policy, is a white man's country, 97.62 per cent. of its people being British. The native race, the Maoris, have dwindled to very small numbers. New Zealand, like Australia and Canada, assists immigrants to come from the United Kingdom. Individuals and employers in New Zealand may nominate immigrants to receive reduced passage. The High Commissioner in London from New Zealand is authorized to give assisted rates or passage for domestic servants, farm laborers, miners, and artisans. The immigration to New Zealand is not very large. A great deal of it comes from Australia and there is a close approximation between immigration and emigration. The New Zealand law is analogous to that of Australia. It includes a dictation test which states that persons not of British birth and parentage who are unable to write out and sign in a European language a prescribed form of application are prohibited from entering. This, of course, is an Asiatic exclusion act. In the case of the Chinese a poll tax of £100 is demanded and the ability to read a printed passage of not less than 100 words of the English language. Chinese and Japanese may be naturalized, but only a few have been given the privilege.

*South Africa*

South Africa is unique in the story of Europe's colonization. For three centuries she was nothing more than a landmark and a port of call. She is now the great unfinished chapter of Britain's long tale of new and wide dominions. Settled in the beginning by the Dutch and under the control of the Netherlands East India Company, South Africa advanced slowly in numbers from 1487 to 1690. It is interesting to note that during this period 180 Huguenot refugees went to South Africa and formed a considerable part of the original stock from which the Dutch population in South Africa is descended. The Huguenots, wherever they went, formed a most valuable part of the early colonial populations and are a happy illustration of the value of the introduction into a country of an exceptionally high grade intellectual group.

In 1806 the Cape became a British possession, formal cession taking place in 1814. At this time the population was small, not over 26,000 whites, mostly Dutch, with 17,000 Hottentots and 29,000 slaves. During the years 1820-1821, 5,000 British colonists entered from Cape Town. This group reported that the population was too large to be absorbed at one time. In 1836 the great "trek" took place, and large numbers of the original Dutch population pushed back into the Transvaal, Orange Free State and Natal. The Cape gradually developed until in 1875 it had a population of 721,000, of whom 237,000 were Europeans, the rest blacks. After this date, disputes arose between the Cape government and the

Boer republics, altho, even at this time, the idea of federation was strong on account of the necessity of presenting a common front to the negroes. Proposals for federation fell through and each of the two groups followed its own course until the Boer War. Later, the South African provinces were brought together under the South African Act of 1909, and formed the Dominion of South Africa, consisting of four provinces, the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, Transvaal and the Orange River Province. The present Union has 473,096 square miles of territory. Its population in 1919 was estimated at 7,143,697. Of this number 1,479,068 were white, the rest colored.

#### IMMIGRATION LARGELY BRITISH

South Africa has never attracted a large immigration. Most of those who have gone as immigrants have been from the British Isles. Only in one year since 1903 has immigration gone over the 50,000 mark. In 1913, 14,251 immigrants entered the Dominion; in 1914, 9,047; in 1915, 5,158; in 1916, 3,846; in 1917, 2,079; in 1918, 4,565 new arrivals. During the last ten years there has been a tendency for Russians, Belgians, Germans and Scandinavians to go to South Africa.\*

In common with Canada and Australia, South Africa has given State-aided passage. This is limited almost entirely to family domestics and the wives and the families of Europeans settled in the country. South Africa's immigration law places no serious ob-

\* Statistics on South Africa procured from the South African Year Book, 1910-1918.

stacles in the way of white immigrants. They must, however, be people of good health and character and have visible means of support. Each individual must have £20 in his possession, as the circumstances of the country do not render it always easy for new arrivals to make their way at once. The Minister of the Interior, under the Act of 1913, is empowered to certify as prohibited immigrants, persons or classes of persons whose presence from economic or other reasons is considered undesirable. This in many ways is an elastic clause, very similar to the Canadian law, which gives the executive part of the government a free hand to meet emergencies arising though the immigration of undesirable groups or races. Very full powers are given to the immigration authorities, not only at the port of entry, but also at places within the dominion and on the border. The numbers of people excluded from year to year has not been very large and has consisted mostly of East Indians. In 1918, of 562 excluded, 446 were East Indians.

#### SOUTH AFRICA AND THE ASIATIC

South Africa and the various provinces which make up the Dominion have had very serious difficulties with the Asiatics. The most serious difficulties have centered in Natal and the Transvaal. In 1911, there were 152,309 Asiatics in the Dominion, of whom 149,791 were East Indians, 133,439 of whom resided in Natal. Indentured Indians were brought into Natal in 1860 in order to meet the needs of labor in that province. This policy was followed with some interruptions until 1911, when it was stopped. The period of indenture consisted of five years, but

at its expiration many of the East Indians settled in Natal, going into farming, market gardening, hawking and other petty pursuits. These latter were known as free Indians in contrast to other indentured Indians. At the present time most of the Indians in Natal are free. They present a serious situation, owing to the small number of Europeans in that province. In 1895 an annual tax of £3 was put upon each Asiatic. Later restrictions culminated in riots. Still later this tax was abandoned.

#### DIFFICULTIES IN THE TRANSVAAL

Transvaal has also had serious difficulties. The first law passed against Asiatics was in 1885, which required them to register and pay a tax of £25 within eight days of their arrival in the republic. This was later reduced to £3. At or shortly before the outbreak of the Boer War the majority of the Indians left the Transvaal. At the close of the war registration was reinstated in voluntary form, when a large number of East Indians returned. Large numbers of Asiatics registered, but the law was so poorly administered that many entered without conforming to the regulations. In 1906, more stringent regulations were passed, these regulations being supported by all sections of the white community. They were opposed by the Asiatics who were led by a Hindu lawyer, Mr. M. K. Gandhi. This same Mr. Gandhi is the leading spirit in the present opposition to the British in India. A passive resistance movement was carried out under his direction, but the South Africans passed a more stringent act which brought the whole matter to a head in 1913. Some

2,700 Indians from Natal took up arms and marched on the Transvaal. As a result of these disturbances an Indian Inquiry Commission was authorized to look into the causes of the difficulty, but Mr. Gandhi and his followers refused to recognize the commission.

#### THE PRESENT POSITION OF THE ASIATIC

As a result of these difficulties, the Transvaal placed all Asiatics under certain political disabilities in respect to the franchise and also debarred them from holding land. The Orange Free State, now one of the constituent parts of South Africa, has succeeded in practical exclusion. This State also requires registration. The Cape of Good Hope also restricts the Asiatic. In 1904, the Cape passed a Chinese Exclusion Act, later a law requiring the registration of all Asiatic male adult residents. In 1913, a dominion law was passed prohibiting the admission from overseas of any more Asiatics, except wives and young children of those already domiciled there. South Africa also restricts Asiatics now resident there to the provinces of which they are resident.

#### COMMON ITEMS IN IMMIGRATION POLICIES

The immigration policies of these countries show several outstanding items common to all. In the first place, they are all attempting to secure a type of immigrant which will fit into their national plans and aspirations. They all wish to keep their racial composition Anglo-Saxon in character. British immigrants, in consequence, are the first choice and



every effort is made to attract them. Secondly, the peoples of northern and western Europe and the United States are welcome. Lastly, other races may enter if they will fit into the scheme of life as visualized by these dominions. All the dominions, however, have protected themselves by elastic legislation against any undesirable immigration. These elastic provisions allow the executive departments of their governments to prohibit immigration by races, if necessary. These countries look upon immigration as a means to an end. They do not regard themselves as a haven for the oppressed of other lands, nor as the depository of the overflow population from the congested nations of the world.

In the second place they all desire a type of immigrant that will build up the undeveloped land which they all possess in large amounts. They do not desire immigrants who are going to settle in the cities and add additional problems to their industrial life. First of all, they desire agricultural settlers.

In the third place, all are unalterably opposed to Asiatic immigration in any form. All have devised effective means to prohibit the immigration of the Oriental. In many ways their laws are more effective along these lines than those of the United States.

In brief, there are three cardinal points in the immigration policies of these British dominions:

1. To secure immigrants who will be rapidly assimilated by their own population;
2. To secure immigrants who will build up the country in an agricultural way;
3. To exclude the Asiatic.

## XV

### THE RACE PROBLEM IN THE PACIFIC

The outstanding and common factor in the immigration policies of Australia, Canada, New Zealand, South Africa and the United States is their unyielding objection to the introduction of Asiatic settlers and laborers. They are one in their determination to exclude the races of the Orient. It is well for Americans to know that Asiatic immigration is not alone a California-Japanese problem. It is a world question touching each and every one of the countries bordering on the Pacific. As has been said before, it is fundamentally a problem of population in relationship to natural resources, racial aspirations, standards of living. These are difficult matters to handle successfully by law or diplomatic negotiations, since they involve such fundamental and far-reaching differences in background and viewpoint.\*

Around the shores of the Pacific are many races. First and foremost of all in many ways is the Chinese, the one race that more than any other is likely in the course of the next century to have the profoundest influence on the world's civilization side by side with the English speaking races. The mil-

\* Considerable space in this chapter, as well as in Chapter XIX has been given to Japan, owing to the fact that the problem of Oriental immigration now revolves itself quite largely around the Japanese. Japan, owing to its strength and position, and to the fact that it has brought the question of racial equality before the League of Nations, is the chief exponent of the Asiatic point of view.

lions of people in the Philippines, in the East Indies and in the Islands of the Pacific are practically all of them so situated at the present time that they have little political influence and are not likely to have for a long time to come. Many of these people in the East Indies are under the control of the Dutch who are apprehensive of any measures touching the problem of race in the Pacific.

In South America are the Indians and the Spanish; also, especially in Argentina, a considerable mixture of other races. South American governments have not as yet taken any action or made any protest on the race question, altho the Argentine Senate in October, 1910, approved a proposed change in their constitution, totally excluding colored immigrants. So far as the British Empire is concerned, Australia, New Zealand, Canada and South Africa have all taken a stand fully as firm as that taken by the Americans, but along somewhat different lines. Their measures of restriction have been really more effective than those of our Government in excluding the Chinese, Japanese and Hindus. The reasons they have given for exclusion are the same as those given by the Californians. The sentiments expressed by high officials in these countries are the same as in the United States and their arguments are the same as those given by the Californians. They invariably say: "We simply will not take the risk of having Asiatics enter and in any way affect, or determine, or control our civilization or our ways of doing things. It is better for the Asiatic and better for us that each develop his civilization separately and then work together in a friendly way. The re-

sults will not be friendly if they are allowed to come in and dominate our affairs or affect materially our policies."

#### THE ESSENTIALS OF PROSPERITY

One of the great political parties in its platform in the last presidential campaign said that the two essential elements of prosperity in any country are:

1. Land—the national resources of a country; and
2. Population—the characteristics of the inhabitants of the land.

Professor Henry Pratt Fairchild, of New York University, in speaking of the first feature and its importance in any immigration policy says:

"The two elemental facts in both economics and sociology are that the ultimate source of all wealth is land and the sole means of making this wealth available for the satisfaction of human desires is human labor. The absorbing interest of mankind, accordingly, is and always has been how to make the former factor yield maximum returns with a minimum expenditure of the latter. \* \* \* \*

"The most illuminating conception of immigration is as the modern aspect of man's perennial search for land, for that is what it is in the last analysis. The power back of immigration is one of the most universal and insistent of all social forces—land hunger. \* \* \* \*

"A favorable man-land ratio lies at the basis of democratic institutions, of a high standard of living, of a progressive economic civilization, and in fact of practically all the elements of an enviable national situation. It is therefore the most valuable heritage of a nation. And since a favorable man-land ratio, once lost, can be recovered only with the greatest difficulty if at all, a nation is justified in regarding infringements on such a ratio as direct attacks upon its

welfare not only for the present but also for the future.

\* \* \* \*

"There is not the slightest ground for assuming that the natural urge to migrate to the United States will cease as long as our man-land ratio and the social, political and economic conditions which arise out of it are sufficiently superior to those of the most crowded and most backward country in the world so as to promise any advantage to the people of that country as a reward for migration. The same principle applies to all countries in general. The natural culmination of unrestricted immigration would come only when the man-land ratio of all countries had been reduced to a common level, and that level would be the equivalent of that which prevailed in the most poorly situated country.

\* \* \* \*

"With reference to Oriental immigration the acute problem is now concerned with the Japanese. There is no question that the restlessness of the Japanese nation is due at bottom to the congestion of a prolific people upon a land of limited productive area. This is generally recognized, and it is frequently asserted that such a nation must have an outlet—'not the United States, of course, but Manchuria, Korea, or Siberia.'"

A glance at the land policies of other countries shows conclusively that the protection of land resources is the primary object of every country. Even Japan, and quite rightly so, recognizes this principle of restricting land ownership by aliens. "No foreigner can own land in Japan and it has been repeatedly and responsibly stated, both in the Diet and out of it, that such foreign ownership would be a 'pollution of Japanese soil.'"<sup>†</sup> On page 37 of the Japanese Year

\* *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, January, 1921, from an article by Prof. H. P. Fairchild on "The Ultimate Basis of Immigration," pp. 198, 201.

<sup>†</sup> *Japan's Foreign Policy*, A. M. Pooley, p. 15.

Book for 1919-1920, edited by Professor Y. Take-nobi, of Waseda University, is the following reference to land ownership in Japan:

"In regard to the right of ownership of land, this right was denied to individual foreigners, but by the Law promulgated April, 1910, this question has received radical modification. It imposes various restrictions on the foreign ownership of land, as follows: (1) Hokkaido, Saghalin, and Formosa are exempted from the operation of the law. [Ed.—These three islands constitute a large percentage of the total area of Japan.] (2) It is impossible for the right to be granted in any district declared to be reserved for purposes of national defense. (3) The Law makes it incumbent on any foreigner who owns land in a district newly declared to be within a fortified zone to divest himself of that property within one year on pain of sequestration. (4) The Law only grants the right of ownership to those foreigners who maintain a household or lodging in the country, or to those foreign juridical persons who keep an office here. (5) It compels any foreign landowner who may leave the country and thus fail to maintain a household or lodging to sell his property within five years on penalty of its reversion to the national Treasury. *The date of putting the Law in operation still remains unfixed.*"\*

According to the latest information, this famous law of 1910, which was supposed to give the foreigners the right to own land in Japan under certain restrictions enumerated above, has never been put into effect.

The only foreign leasehold of land in Japan is that held by foreigners who held their property far back in the early days before Japan became modernized sufficiently to discriminate against the for-

\* Japanese Year Book, 1919-20, p. 37.



eigner; and this had to be settled by the Hague Tribunal. At almost every session of the Japanese Diet the subject is brought up regarding the putting into effect of the famous law of 1910, but no action is ever taken. The Overland China Mail of Hong-kong (in 1919) had some caustic remarks on this very point, the charge being made that this subject is brought up in the Diet every year for the simple purpose of throwing dust in the eyes of the British Parliament to prevent that body from legislating against the ownership of land by Japanese in British Colonies until the same right is granted to British subjects in Japan.

Japan, in brief, follows the practise of protecting her land from alienation, the very policy which she complains that other countries use. A careful examination of her uncompleted land law discloses the fact that alien land ownership is prohibited in three large islands of the Empire and in other parts reserved for the purposes of national defense. This latter clause covers a very considerable portion of Japan proper, as she is much more of a militaristic nation than the United States. Much ado is made about restrictions of land by California, Australia and other countries, but as pointed out before, land is the greatest heritage of a nation and to allow a large proportion of the arable land, as in California, to go into the possession of a race so different that it will never be fully assimilated by the rest of the population is a very serious matter. The fact, too, that under Japanese law the Japanese, including even children born in the United States from Japanese parents and hence American citizens, are Japanese citizens and registered and

treated as such, adds a political factor of great importance to the question. Viewed from this fundamental aspect, California is right in its objection to Japanese land ownership; there is no doubt at all that Japan herself would not and does not permit another race to own land in Japan.

There is one conclusive fact: the Japanese wisely do not open their lands to aliens, even tho they do object to California closing her lands to them. It is true that Japan's law applies to all nations, while California excludes practically only the Japanese and Chinese. There is a proposal now in Congress that the law be so amended as to exclude all aliens. Such a law may be objected to on the ground that the Californians in their race prejudice have ignored the question of inferior and superior physical and mental qualities. In regard to this Governor Stephens of California, in his report on "California and the Oriental," speaks as highly of the good qualities of the Japanese as any one possibly could; but he adds that the question is simply one of race and race differences.

This country has room for many more immigrants, but only those who will fit into our civilization are desirable. The English, for example, and many other foreigners, blend well with our civilization, intermarry, and become part of us. If they wish to buy lands in California, all right, altho they should not object if it were required of them that they become American citizens first. At the same time, there is a decided distinction between them and Orientals. The distinction is one of race.

## QUALITIES NEEDED FOR ASSIMILATION

In a previous chapter mention has been made of the essential qualities of immigrants to assimilate rapidly and completely. An enumeration of some of these qualities ought to include language, political opinion, educational training, industry and thrift. Mention has also been made of the race factor. In the case of the Oriental, the question of their standard of living is very important, especially since it enables them to undercut in the economic field.

## FAMILY LIFE

Yet there is still another quality of far more vital importance that calls for the closest scrutiny—namely, family life. When people are interrelated by blood, as brother and sister or parent and child, or by marriage as husband and wife, there is a degree of intimacy not to be found in any other association. Even the intimacy of partners in business, where economic conditions make each dependent upon the other, does not approach the family ties. In family life we have in addition to economic interests, a world-old psychic relation which is as indefinable as it is strong and lasting. So it seems that when we raise the question of the assimilative power of a people, it inevitably brings up the question as to whether the two peoples under consideration are likely to intermarry; whether there is any factor that would so operate as to make intermarriage the exceptional rather than the general course, and thus serve to antagonize instead of unite. We

have a case in point here in the United States which it is well to consider carefully.

It has often been said that the most difficult problem that exists in the United States today is the question of the Negro; and the question of intermarriage is substantially the essence of the Negro problem. No fair-minded American imputes any blame whatever to the Negroes for the fact that they to a very considerable extent shut themselves off, and are shut off, from the closest relationship with the white race pretty generally throughout the whole country. If the blame is to be fixt, it should rest upon the white man, because a very large proportion of the Negroes in the earlier days were brought here against their will by Whites and enslaved for purposes of profit. But setting aside the question of blame, the fact remains that there are in the United States, millions of a race so different in appearance and mental characteristics as to preclude any possibility of assimilation. In fact in many States intermarriage is prohibited, while in other States members of both races instinctively refrain from union, despite the fact that a great deal has been done to educate both races along the same lines. Tho the two races have somewhat similar tastes, the line of demarcation seems to be both absolute and permanent.

In a somewhat less degree possibly, the same principle applies to the White and Yellow races of the Pacific. The Chinese and Japanese are the two races we think of, but we should also include the Hindus. So far as the British Colonies are concerned, the Hindu is more important than the Japanese or Chinese. As we are aware, there are instances of intermarriage between Whites and Japanese and Chinese; but they are

recognized as unusual if not abnormal. Neither race looks with favor upon them. Careful students of politics, sociology and business are agreed that the factor of race is practically a permanent factor; so under the circumstances, it is folly for us to pretend that it does not exist.

There is no reason why we should discuss at any length the question of Californian or American antipathy to Chinese, Japanese or Hindus (and the three should be classed together when we speak of exclusion) on the ground of superiority. Anyone who has anything like a proper knowledge of the Chinese and Japanese, and the higher caste Hindus, knows perfectly well that there is no justification for a white man speaking of those races as inferior. There is no reason to feel that their intellectual calibre is in any way below that of Americans, tho in their mental characteristics they apparently differ somewhat from Americans and also from one another. In certain fields we may very well admit that they are distinctly our superiors; while along other lines we may with equal justice claim that we are their superiors. But there are racial differences which can never be reconciled because they are fundamental. In this entire discussion we should waive all question of inferiority or superiority.

We should feel in a most friendly way that it would be wise for the Japanese and Chinese to exclude us for the sake of their civilization, while we should exclude them for the sake of ours. We are not oppressing the Japanese by excluding them, any more than the Japanese are oppressing the Chinese and Koreans who are excluded from Japan. As a matter of fact, the Japanese must yield wherever they come into direct

competition with the Chinese, along economic lines; just as the Americans must give way when coming into competition with the Japanese, who are the stronger largely because they are willing to adopt a somewhat lower standard of living. They demand as high wages as the Whites where they can, but they are willing to accept lower, until they get the upper hand; then they demand equality. We can not blame them; it is the instinctive thing for them to do. On the other hand, we should protect ourselves against competition that is bound to substitute a lower and different type of civilization.

The Chinese, according to the Hon. Paul S. Reinsch, recently United States Minister to China, have a very clear appreciation of the racial difficulties involved in immigration. In speaking of the attitude of the Chinese toward Americans he asserts:

"The Chinese are characterized by an innate sense of equity; in all of their social arrangements there is a basic equity which manifests itself at all times. They are the one nation which could most easily get along without any government whatsoever, by simply relying upon this feeling of equity which lives among the people. And it is because the diplomatic action of the American Government has at all times been based upon the idea that the Chinese are entitled to human rights, that we respect these rights, that we do not ask any concessions for respecting them, that the Chinese have conceived such deep confidence in America. \* \* \* They have maintained the same attitude on the Exclusion Law. They are most reasonable; they consider that the United States is justified in not desiring large bodies of people of entirely different traditions to settle within the United States."\*

\* *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, January, 1921, p. 18.



In any exclusion law great care must be taken to provide for the entrance of students, teachers, business men and travelers. Mr. Reinsch states:

"The Chinese have often been indignant on one point, namely, that Chinese who have a perfect right under our laws and treaties to come to the United States—Chinese officials, merchants and students—are often, at our ports of entry, subjected to very annoying delays, and in fact, from their point of view, to indignities. I shall mention only one case which recently happened. A Chinese merchant came here to inspect our electrical industry, expecting to place a large order. He had letters of introduction to American firms, and his patronage had been sought for years. The immigration official at the port of entry sent him into the detention place for several days; when he emerged from there he not only bought his ticket to New York but beyond to England. It is a very poor policy even from a purely commercial point of view; every other nation labors to attract the Chinese."\*

Returning to the argument of Professor Fairchild, the factor of land resolves itself into the questions: "Has a nation, whose population is expanding beyond its own resources to such an extent as to threaten its standard of living, a right to look for an outlet in some other land? Or has the time come to deny the right of a nation, which is suffering stringency because of an unrestrained growth of population, to seek relief by encroaching on the territory of a more fortunate or more self-controlled country?"†

Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States have answered this question by excluding the Oriental. The Japanese claim that such a policy is unjust. The answer may be made: Australia, Canada,

\* *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, January, 1921, p. 9.

† *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, January, 1921, p. 201

New Zealand and the United States must conserve their land resources against the need of their future population without regard for the immediate need of any other nation. It is not a question of justice at all, but one of self-preservation.

It must also be kept in mind that opportunities for Japanese expansion are not all closed. Formosa, Corea, Manchuria, Siberia, and even some of her own islands still offer opportunities for the Japanese settler. Other factors not to be overlooked in raising the standard of living are industrial expansion and proper methods of birth control. All these remedies are now considered by thoughtful Japanese. Moreover, it is not essential that an industrial nation into which Japan is rapidly developing, needs the political control of all raw materials, as the Japanese so often assume. England is dependent on the United States and other nations for much of her raw material, and with safety. Only a militaristic nation need fear such dependence on other countries for her industrial expansion.

When the question of race enters, the difficulties are greatly increased. But here again a decided answer has been given to the question of free immigration of the Asiatics into the white countries bordering the Pacific. The answer has been, "No." Even the British Empire has been forced to recognize the antipathy of races, for it has conveyed to each individual dominion the power to decide for itself precisely what people may enter from the rest of the empire. Everything considered, the possibility of future conflicts will be minimized by a present strong opposition to Asiatic immigration.

## XVI

### AGENCIES OF PROTECTION, DISTRIBUTION AND ASSIMILATION

#### *Needs and Present Methods of Distribution*

It has been the general feeling, not only of those who have studied carefully the immigration problem, but also of casual observers, that one of the greatest evils that spring from immigration is the congestion of the newly arrived immigrants in our great cities. In consequence, it has been thought that any methods that could be adopted by which these immigrants could be more widely distributed over the different sections of the country, particularly in the agricultural districts, would not merely relieve the evil of the overcrowding, but would also improve the general economic condition of the country. It has been thought that every effort possible ought to be made:

- (1) To give information to the people in Europe who are about to come to America, regarding the sections of the country and the opportunities for work in different lines, so that they may go directly to the place best suiting their means.
- (2) That when the immigrant lands he should have the opportunity of getting information along the same lines, so that even at the beginning he may change his mind and go to a new section where conditions will suit his needs.
- (3) Particularly, however, is it desirable, after the immigrant has remained in this country for a time and has learned to know our language, our institu-

tions, and the kind of work for which he is best adapted, that he should learn through some trustworthy agency conducted by the Government where he can find the type of work for which he is suited, the cost of transporting himself from his present location to that district, and the amount of money required for him to make a proper investment.

In very many instances, after immigrants have remained in this country from two to five years, they have accumulated considerable money which they wish to invest properly. They often send the money back to Europe for investment, even tho there are better opportunities for investment here. If their attention could be called to the section of the country in which good farming lands, for example, were available, at cheap rates, they could buy them; they would find it safe to move from the overcrowded cities into the country districts, and could thereby benefit both themselves and the country that they have chosen to be their home. The discussion in Chapter VI, regarding the congestion and living conditions, especially in our great cities, but also in our smaller mining and manufacturing communities, shows how great this need is.

Of equal importance to that of distribution are the needs of protecting the newly arrived immigrant from exploitation on the part of those who see in him a prey for plunder. The new arrivals should also be furnished with opportunities for learning the English language, acquiring a knowledge of American business methods and information regarding American political and social institutions that will lead them to wish to fix their interests here and to become American citizens of the better type—in brief, to become assimilated.

In the present chapter are discust the conditions of a number of institutions already in existence, which are attempting to meet these needs. Later will be suggested a way of improving these institutions, or of providing better institutions to carry out these purposes.

### *Immigrant Homes and Aid Societies*

When the immigrant reaches his port of destination in the United States, it is desirable that he be so received as to make upon him a good impression, and particularly that he shall not, through his ignorance of the language and of the new conditions, fall into difficulties which may either cause him suffering or prejudice him unfavorably against the institutions of the country of his adoption.

#### WORK OF AID SOCIETIES

Usually, immigrants to the United States know, in advance, that they are going to join relatives or friends who have preceded them. Often, however, these friends are situated hundreds or even thousands of miles from the port of entry; in other cases, through some misunderstanding, they fail to meet their friends when they enter the port. Very often the immigrants need advice or a place where they can remain in safety for a few days while they are getting their bearings and learning just what it is best to do. In order to meet these needs there have been established at a number of our important ports societies that, with the permission of the Government, send representatives to the port of entry, in order that they

may note those immigrants who are in need, and may give them advice; that they may, if necessary, furnish them a place where they can remain for a few days until their first needs are met. Usually, the immigrants who need this assistance are:

(a) Those whose friends and relatives have failed to meet them at the immigrant station, and whom the authorities do not deem it wise to land, unless some one becomes responsible for their care, but for whom some provision must be made.

(b) Those who are without sufficient money to enable them to reach their destination and who must therefore be cared for until their friends may send them the necessary funds; and

(c) Particularly women and girls who have no friends or relatives in this country and who are in need of some home where they may stay in safety until they can secure employment—this class calling for special consideration.

It is the usual custom at Ellis Island for those immigrants whose friends fail to call for them within five days, either to leave the immigrant station in company with a representative of some philanthropic or religious society, or to return to Europe on a steamship of the line which has brought them hither. It would thus seem that there is an opportunity for a properly organized and properly conducted immigrant home or immigrant aid society to accomplish a work of the very greatest importance both to the immigrant and to the country. It is, however, desirable that this work be very carefully done, under discreet supervision, in order to assure the best and most humane results.



## NUMBER OF WORKERS AND PERSONS ASSISTED

At the port of New York alone, in the year 1907, over 14,800 immigrants were put into the hands of missionaries and representatives of these immigrant homes. Moreover, these figures are much below those that might be shown if all cases were noted. One home alone, for example, provided with board and lodging during that year 5,378 men, 1,822 women, and 60 children. Of this number only 922 men, 1,062 women and 34 children were sent to the home by the immigration authorities.

In New York, in June, 1908, there were 41 separate organizations engaged in this work, that kept at Ellis Island no fewer than 87 missionaries and representatives. All these representatives are supposed to furnish their services free of charge to the immigrants and to be persons of high character, into whose hands it is safe to place the needy immigrant who is ignorant of the customs of this country. Unfortunately, investigations have shown that in many instances these representatives are not worthy people, and that the homes have been so conducted as to be not a help but a menace to the immigrant. In 1910 even a missionary was forbidden to work longer at Ellis Island on account of mistreatment of immigrant girls by overcharges for board and lodging and delays in finding work for them.

These missionaries and representatives of the homes, when meeting the immigrants, are supposed to write letters for them, to help them get into communication with their friends and relatives, to trace lost baggage, to give religious consolation in time of need, to escort them without charge to their destina-

tions in the city, to assist them in going to their destinations in different sections of the country and to notify in advance the friends and relatives or the representatives of organizations in those cities, so that they may be properly met. Besides this, they often distribute clothing, Bibles, and other literature, and sometimes sell Bibles or other books to those who wish to purchase them. Moreover, for immigrants who have been detained by the immigration authorities, and whose cases may perhaps be treated with undue haste, owing to the pressure of business, they appear before the Board of Special Inquiry and assist them in presenting their case.

#### COOPERATION OF THE GOVERNMENT

The Government, recognizing the need, has, generally speaking, welcomed these missionaries and representatives of the immigrant homes. In some of the stations it has provided them office room, and given them access to the immigrants whenever this seems to them desirable. Unfortunately, it has appeared that the missionaries are sometimes not worthy of the confidence that has been reposed in them. In many cases they seem to feel that they are doing their work best when they get the largest number of immigrants put into their care. Moreover, in some instances at least, they wish to get these immigrants, in order that they may make a profit. One or two have even declared that their institutions could not exist unless they received immigrants from the immigrant station. Altho they are supposed to furnish their services free, or at actual cost, there have been instances where a representative of a home has brought immigrants that were placed in his charge back to the station, saying

that he could not receive them because they had no money. Even since 1910 instances of overcharges have been found.

#### DETAILS OF WORK

The work done by the representatives of these societies in appearing before the Board of Special Inquiry and seeing to it that the immigrants get justice, is often a worthy work, altho in some cases they push unduly the claims of the immigrants and even violate the spirit of our immigration law. According to the report of one of the societies, in 1907 their representatives appealed 1,906 cases. As the result of this appeal, 1,252 were admitted and only 654 debarred. This shows that in this case, at any rate, the societies' work was needed.

On the other hand, there have been instances where the agents of the societies have been instrumental in securing the admittance into this country of contract laborers contrary to law. Agents of the Immigration Commission, representing themselves to be agents of firms who wished to employ immigrants from Europe, asked some of these representatives if they could import workmen. In certain instances they agreed to do so. One asked to think the proposition over, with the evident intention of engaging in the work, while some stated that they would be glad to go back to their own country to get the immigrants to come and to see to it that they were well placed in positions here—even tho this entire activity is contrary to law. With scarcely any exceptions, it was found that at the immigrant stations there were some worthless, unprincipled missionaries and representatives, altho, of course, in many cases, these representatives were worthy people. The certainty of the unworthiness

and lack of principle is shown from the fact that one, a clergyman, frequently went to an immigrant station intoxicated; in another instance a minister charged the relatives of detained immigrants large fees for getting the immigrants out of the detention room; other representatives went so far as to insult girls and women who were placed in their care.

### *Results of Investigation of Immigrant Homes*

The Immigration Commission investigated carefully no less than 44 representative immigrant homes in seven different cities. In most cases these homes were located in good neighborhoods; in some instances, however, they were not in localities that were really safe for immigrants, especially for young women.

In certain instances these homes, altho they accommodated both men and women, or even women and girls only, were managed by men, with no matrons on the executive staff.

A large majority of the homes investigated were clean, comfortable, and reasonably sanitary; but a considerable proportion, perhaps one-third, were overcrowded, badly ventilated, filthy, unsanitary.

In a majority of the homes investigated, the food furnished was sufficient and good enough in quality, but in many individual instances the food was not sufficient in quantity and left very much to be desired in quality. Of course, it is to be expected that in such places the food must be simple and plain, but it ought invariably to be wholesome and sufficient in quantity. The prices charged by these homes are sufficient to cover the cost of good, wholesome, tho simple food.

The investigation showed also that altho the boards of directors of these institutions are probably acting conscientiously and are at any rate usually men of good standing, frequently clergymen, and altho these societies are supported in good part by religious organizations, sometimes with subventions from some foreign government, due care was not shown in selecting either the local superintendent in charge of the home or the representatives that met the immigrants. Altho the boards of directors in some cases reported that they frequently inspected the homes and supervised them carefully, in many cases this supervision was greatly lacking.

Perhaps the worst charge brought against the homes was that the managers were not sufficiently careful in investigating the places to which girls who applied for positions as servants were allowed to go. In a majority of the cases investigated it was found that people, representing themselves as agents and managers of disreputable houses, were able, by payment of a small fee, to have placed in their charge for work in one of these houses as ordinary servants, young immigrant girls, who in many instances did not know the kind of place to which it was purposed to send them. Of course, it is the duty of the managers of these institutions to do what they can to secure good, paying positions for the girls who are in their care, but certainly they should exercise discretion enough not to permit them to go into houses where their morals would be decidedly endangered.

When a girl is sent for to fill a position, a home of this type ought to investigate the place before letting her engage to work there. Moreover, after the girl has been placed in a position, the home ought to see



whether she has reached the place and to follow the case up for a few weeks, in order to know that the girl is properly started in the new country. Due care has not been shown. The Immigration Commission made an investigation of the addresses of 228 immigrant girls in charge of the missionaries and representatives of immigrant homes and reported upon by the managers of these homes as having been placed. The investigation was made within seven months, at the longest, from the date on which the girls left the home. In some cases they had been gone not over a month. Out of the 228 addresses given, only 178 were really correct; 39 were absolutely false, the girls having never been at the addresses given; 8 of the addresses were fictitious, that is, there was no such place, while 3 were well-known disorderly houses.

Since this investigation was made, the Commissioner at Ellis Island has taken care to have a number of the houses investigated again; in every case he has found the charges made by the earlier investigators correct, and he has taken strong measures to prevent such abuses in the future.

### *Influence of Immigrant Churches*

The influences for and against assimilation exercised by immigrant churches upon the immigrants may, for the sake of clearness, be classified as follows, according to their direction:

#### TOWARD SEGREGATION

The influence toward segregation of aliens from native Americans is quite strong and is always present, except that the Germans, Irish, English, Scotch and



Scandinavians usually settle in the native sections of the cities and towns.

Another segregating influence is the maintenance of religious separation among immigrants by denominations. The exceptions to this influence are so rare as almost to escape notice. The church denomination of the immigrant is invariably that with which he was identified before emigration from his native land. Not even racial ties are able to destroy denominational lines. Evidences of the strength of denominational rivalry constantly occur in the courts. Magistrates in the foreign sections of industrial towns state that a considerable number of cases for assault and battery, as well as for more serious crimes, arise from denominational differences.

Peter A. Speek, in a book just published, entitled "A Stake in the Land," states that "Immigrant or foreign-language churches are needed by the immigrants so long as they have not learned to understand the English language. But for those immigrants who have been long enough in this country to know English and for the immigrants' children born in America no foreign-language churches are needed. If the church authorities conduct the church services and activities in a foreign tongue for those immigrants who understand and speak English, they then do this for racial or nationalistic reasons—as a service to the old country or to a nationality other than the American nationality. That this is often the case is shown by the fact that certain foreign countries have been financially supporting churches here for their people who have come to America; for instance the former Russian monarchy gave liberally for the establishment and up-

keep of Russian Greek Orthodox churches in this country."\*

A third segregating influence is racial. The denominations of each race strive to have their own separate churches. The sectarian influence frequently proves stronger than the racial, but it does not seem to be permanent in any case. All of these segregating tendencies are further strengthened by the parochial schools. Mr. Speek states that "one of the greatest negative agencies, and in a large number of cases consciously negative agencies, affecting the Americanization of immigrants in our rural districts has been the private school. \* \* \* \* There is no question that the foreign language private schools have done great harm to the country as a whole and to the immigrants themselves."†

The first step toward religious segregation after a number of immigrants of a given race and denomination have settled in a community is the sending of a missionary from the ruling body to arouse interest among the settlers. Then an organization is effected, and a priest or pastor, as the case may be, is placed among them and supported by them. Services are regularly held in rented buildings, and the work of gathering funds for erecting a church edifice is begun. Frequently the members are called upon to give even more than they can afford, altho in some instances a large part of the money is given by one man who has acquired means. Sometimes the cooperation and assistance of industrial concerns are obtained, their officials realizing that the erection of a church means a more stable population and a surer supply of alien labor.

\* "A Stake in the Land," by Peter A. Speek, p. 182.

† Idem, pp. 156 and 180.

## TOWARD PERMANENCY OF RESIDENCE

Many of the priests and pastors of immigrant churches state that they are desirous of increasing the number of persons in their parishes and congregations, and that they encourage their members to induce their friends and relatives to come to this country. This condition of affairs mainly encourages immigration, as has been before stated, but it also tends to bring about permanent residence in this country of the new arrivals. The effort of the priests and pastors is not directed to immigrants in the larger cities or towns in the United States, where churches have been already organized for the different races and denominations, but to immigrants in any locality where there are no religious organizations for the race or denomination in question, and to friends and relatives in their native land. The work of the ministers along this line seems to be actuated by at least two considerations: First, their duty in strengthening the whole church body in America by concentration; second, their desire to increase the size of their own parishes or congregations, and hence to strengthen their own churches.

From the same motives and frequently from a sense of civic duty as well, the priests and pastors do all in their power to encourage permanency of residence among immigrants. Their statements to this effect have been corroborated by the testimony of the immigrants themselves. This phase of the work of the immigrant church not only takes the form of mere verbal persuasion, but also that of encouragement of property owning, marriage, and home making, and frequently of assisting the local benefit associations. It can not be denied that the influence of immigrant

churches is strong in the two directions outlined. The logically resultant effect of the forces thus created is distinctly against assimilation. Segregation prevents the removal of such barriers to assimilation as separation from natives, and racial and religious differences among themselves.

The settling influence is, on the other hand, permanent residence on the part of the immigrants, not only in the United States, but also in a certain locality, whereby they are enabled to have their friends and relatives with them here, and to become accustomed to the local environment, as well as to have a home in a definite place. The result of these two opposing influences is the growth of certain "foreign sections" of the city made up of a large number of permanent residents of all the principal races so segregated from the natives as to foster a peculiar communal life, in not only the foreign "sections," but also in "colonies" formed by individual races.

#### *Work of Native Churches and Religious Organizations Among Immigrants*

The work done by native churches among the immigrants is regarded as of a purely missionary nature. There is little tendency to promote association among natives and foreigners such as exists among natives. Indeed, one of the most striking features of the whole immigration situation is the almost entire indifference of the native churches to the immigrants, and the general lack of religious and welfare work among them. The native American churches claim that their efforts have largely resulted in failure because of the immigrant churches and the segregation of the immigrant population. However this may be, it is undoubtedly

true that the American churches are passing by a great opportunity for social service. Their inertness is principally due to race prejudice and the general alienation of the church from the workingman. Fortunately, the last few years have shown, in this regard, an awakening in many churches.

### *The Work of Other Organizations*

#### THE YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION

The Young Men's Christian Association has for the past few years made efforts to do work of a purely secular character among the immigrant races. Its work has been mainly of an educational kind, especially night and day classes in the English language. Advertisements are printed in different languages and distributed among immigrants residing in a community. All taking these classes are required to pay a membership and tuition fee to the association. The classes are two, one for beginners and another for advanced students, and usually meet twice a week for two hours during a period of six months, beginning in October of each year. Male native teachers are usually employed.

The courses in the English language are designed to bring the immigrants to an intelligent understanding of American Government and institutions. For example, the "Reader" used in three classes contains selections on citizenship, the meaning of the American flag, outlines of the Government, iron and steel making, and other industrial processes, what trade-unions are trying to do, and a number of similar topics. In addition, a course of four lessons is given to classes on "How to become a citizen of the United States."

Plans have already been made by the organization,



and are even now fairly well in operation, to secure direct contact and working relations with the incoming immigrant as well as with the more intelligent and successful conducting of agencies leading to his Americanization. Several years ago a group of young men were sent abroad to study the principal races of recent arrival in the United States in their home countries, to learn their languages, and to acquire insight into their living conditions and aspirations. Thus equipped, it was thought that these representatives could much more effectively carry on the work of the organization in immigrant communities in this country. It is the intention to send other groups of men abroad at intervals with the same object in view. An arrangement has also been made, through the International Committee of the organization, by which an immigrant from any one of several foreign ports, through a system of cards of introduction and through representatives on shipboard, may be guided and protected throughout his entire journey to his final destination in the United States. The Young Men's Christian Association, as briefly stated, is endeavoring, with a good measure of success, to relate its work to incoming Americans. The Knights of Columbus and a number of other private agencies are doing similar work for the incoming immigrant at the port of entry, as well as providing citizenship instruction and other aids to progress.

#### THE NORTH AMERICAN CIVIC LEAGUE

The North American Civic League for Immigrants is another organization which, conceived in a patriotic spirit, is doing an important work in the protection and Americanization of the recent immigrant. This body has no attitude toward immigration as a policy. It



simply takes conditions as they exist, and attempts to safeguard the incoming immigrant and educate him to a knowledge and use of American standards and institutions. The organization was first established in Boston. Another active center was organized in New York, and its influence has been strongly felt, especially, perhaps, in the promotion of legislation. The work is conducted through salaried secretaries and assistants, and is supported by voluntary contributions of interested persons. From the multitude of things which the league might do, emphasis so far has been placed upon the following:

(1) Agitation and organization—to the end that all Americans may become conversant with existing conditions and so conduct themselves as to hasten rather than hinder the assimilation of immigrants.

(2) Promotion of helpful legislation.

(3) The positive work required to protect immigrants at the time of disembarkation and in transit to the place where they expect to settle.

(4) The teaching of the English language to those unfamiliar with the tongue, together with the rudiments of citizenship.

### *The Travelers' Aid Society*

An especially useful work is done by the Travelers' Aid Society for girls and women. Women agents of the society meet all steamers on arrival and attend particularly to the needs of women traveling second-class, tho aid is given freely to any travelers needing assistance. As those who are being brought for immoral purposes usually travel second-class, the work is especially useful in this respect.

During the year 1914, 11,267 persons were assisted at the docks, 11,487 at the railway stations, and 7,955 were discharged by the Government to the agents of the society, who conducted them, free of charge, to the addresses desired, put them on the proper trains and assisted them in all possible ways. Scores of girls every year are rescued or prevented from falling into the hands of those with evil designs.

### *Settlements*

The various social settlements in New York, Chicago, Boston and elsewhere have naturally taken a special interest in the immigrants, and in many ways their assimilation work is of special value. Not only do they have classes in teaching English and in technical work of various kinds, but their social features, their clubs, dances, parties, visiting, etc., bring them into close relationships of a personal, sympathetic nature that do more, perhaps, to give a home feeling than any other agency. Often the district nurses in the cities are associated in this work and their relations with the women and children of the immigrant families are generally close and helpful. Such contact is, of course, especially beneficial.

### ALIEN SOCIETIES AND ORGANIZATIONS

A work somewhat similar to that of the North American Civic League is done in Chicago under the auspices of a local and independent organization. A considerable number of protective societies have also been organized by the members of the principal races of recent immigration for the purpose of safe-

guarding their own countrymen upon their arrival at New York City and other ports of entry.

A notable and important work in the distribution of Hebrew immigrants has been accomplished through the assistance of the Baron de Hirsch Fund, established by the public-spirited Hebrew banker of that name in 1891. Not only have the Hebrew immigrants been assisted in settling upon the land, as has already been pointed out,\* but an elaborate organization has been perfected throughout the country for the purpose of adjusting the supply of labor to the demand and for preventing the congestion of Hebrew immigrants at ports of entry. This adjustment is made by representatives of the organization in interior towns and cities notifying other representatives of the organization at the points of disembarkation of the labor needs of the interior communities. Skilled or unskilled Hebrew immigrants, according to the varying demands of interior communities, are accordingly distributed.

### *State Bureaus*

Mention has already been made of the work of the employment agencies and their part in distributing the immigrants from the ports of entry throughout the United States. Institutions of the same character are also maintained in a number of States by public funds. They perform their services without charge.† Many of the States also maintain Immigration or Agricultural Bureaus for the purpose of encouraging immigration into their limits. The activities of these organizations are mainly centered upon advertising the

\* See Chapter VI, "The Recent Immigrant as a Farmer."

† See Chapter X, "The Floating Immigrant Labor Supply."

industrial and business opportunities offered by their respective States, upon listing farm lands for rent or sale, and upon placing the demand for labor before the incoming immigrant or the population of immigrant communities. Some of the State Bureaus of this description, especially those of the South, have sent representatives abroad to lecture and to distribute advertising matter upon the resources and opportunities offered by their commonwealths. The South Carolina bureau went so far in 1907 as to collect and bring in a shipload of 400 immigrants; but on account of legal and other obstacles the experiment was a failure, and other similar attempts have not been made.

The States of New York, Massachusetts and California have created Immigration Commissions also, or, in other words, special and temporary bodies for the purpose of studying the status of the immigrants within their borders and recommending legislation which will ameliorate their condition and promote their assimilation. As a result of the report of the New York Immigration Commission and of the activity of the North American Civic League, the State of New York has established in its Department of Labor a permanent Bureau of Industries and Immigration that is well supported and is doing good work. Commissions in New Jersey, California, and Massachusetts have accomplished many worthwhile, permanent results helpful both to the immigrants and the State.\*

The Massachusetts Immigration Commission made an exceptionally fine study of the immigrants in that State which has been productive of many reforms.

\* In the Survey of July 16, 1921, is a digest of state programs of Immigrant Education. The Interstate Council on Immigrant Education also has a great deal of material along these lines.

The California Commission on Immigration and Housing has developed standards for labor camps which may serve in many respects as models for the whole country. This commission has provided small family houses and supervision of sanitary regulations among the Mexican laborers. It has also done valuable work in the mining and lumber camp regions.\*

### *The Activities of the Railroads*

The railroads, as is well known, have been important factors in the distribution of incoming immigrants. They have been led to such activities, of course, by self-interest; the wish to add greatly to their passenger traffic, or the desire to dispose of land holdings and to build up centers of population and industry along their lines. This has not detracted from the importance of the service, however, and a great deal of good work directly connected with the distribution of southern and eastern Europeans is now done by the railroads traversing the South and West. The problem is more difficult than in the case of the British and northern European races of former years, because of the more general inability of the recent immigrant to speak English and his consequent refusal to enter a district where a number of his countrymen have not already preceded him.

### *Bureau of Information of the Federal Government*

Under the law of 1907 there was established in the Bureau of Immigration a Division of Information with the purpose of supplying to immigrants in-

\* "Immigrant Health and the Community," by Michael M. Davis, p. 367.

formation regarding the conditions in different sections of the country so that their choice of a home might be intelligently made.

As a matter of practical experience the division has not proved very successful thus far, tho its work assumes each year a wider scope. Immigrants are usually induced to come to this country by representations of relatives or friends who are already located. The experience of the immigration authorities shows that more than 97 per cent. of the immigrants have determined upon their destination before reaching this country. It is, therefore, practically impossible to influence them much at that time. The division has, however, collected considerable information regarding the demand for labor, particularly on farms and for domestic service, which they have been ready to furnish not only to immigrants, but to others; and especially, perhaps, in the State of New York have they been able to supply laborers to farmers during the harvest season and they have furnished employment to a good many inquirers. Their information regarding labor conditions in industry has also in certain instances proved fruitful. On the whole, however, the division has not succeeded in making any great impression upon the overcrowded population of the great cities.

Many immigrants within a few years of their arrival succeed in saving considerable sums of money, even several thousands of dollars. Frequently this money is sent back to Europe for investment, the immigrants themselves intending to return to their home country later to remain. In other cases this money is invested in business in the cities with greater or less success. It would, however, be extremely desirable,



both to relieve the congestion of the cities and to improve the condition of the immigrants, if those who are thrifty, especially those who have had training as farmers in Europe, could be distributed to sections of the United States where they might invest their savings in farms and engage in agricultural pursuits. The Immigration Commission recommended that some department of the Government take active measures to bring about such results.

The Bureau of Immigration has prepared a circular letter which it sends to Governors of States and others in authority, asking for the cooperation of the State authorities in securing information regarding any free government land in any State, prices and qualities of other lands for sale that would be suitable for settlers, information regarding climate, water supply, markets, prevailing crops and other matters that would enable a thrifty farmer to judge of the conditions, so that he could see where it was wise for him to make investments. The Bureau, through the Division of Information, by thus cooperating with the States in getting information, especially regarding agricultural conditions, is taking an active part in the distribution of immigrants. It is proposed to furnish this information freely to associations of immigrants and to all inquirers who might be able to make good use of it. By so doing it is hoped that larger numbers of the immigrants who have proved most thrifty may be induced to invest their earnings in this country and to become permanent agricultural settlers. Doubtless along the same line inquiries will be made and information furnished which may prove of advantage in the distribution of immigrants from the great cities into other lines of industry.

There have already, in 1912, been published seven bulletins giving information regarding conditions in all the States and in Alaska and Hawaii. There has been a demand for these bulletins, not only from immigrants, but from Americans in our cities. Some requests have come from American citizens who had gone to northwestern Canada, but who now wish to return. In 1911-12, 26,213 applications were received, and 5,807 persons were directed to employment. It is not known, of course, how many make use of the information, but the Commissioner estimates that 150,000 persons, immigrants and American citizens, may well have benefited from the information given.

In November, 1911, the Division called a conference of state officials dealing with immigration, and delegates from 25 states and from Hawaii attended. Plans for cooperation were discussed and measures adopted from which more beneficial cooperative action has been secured. It is very desirable that some branches of the Division be established at important business points, such as Chicago, New Orleans and San Francisco. The need for such work that will aid in a voluntary independent distribution of the immigrants out of the congested mining and great manufacturing centers is vital.

### *Division of Information*

It is hoped that the present activity of the division will be extended as far as practicable in an effort to give information to arriving immigrants concerning the "resources, products, and physical characteristics," of the various States, and in supplying information to individuals or organizations, public or private; and

in addition that the forthcoming appropriation bills will amply provide for the work. The necessity for proper distribution of recent arrivals is as great as that of supplying employment to our own people, and this duty should ever be borne in mind. Successful efforts in this direction will save many from liability of becoming public charges and avoid hardships and other consequences resulting from neglect and idleness.

## XVII

### ASSIMILATION AND PROGRESS

#### *Process of Assimilation Slow*

Progress in the development of social institutions, of whatever nature, is necessarily slow. Such institutions are in good part the result of the influence of the environment, natural and social, and in consequence any change in social or economic conditions is likely to bring about a modification of the social structure very slowly. Moreover, every people is loath to change materially the nature of its institutions. In consequence, when new races of persons from countries with different customs, come as immigrants, it is desirable that as soon as possible they shall adjust themselves to the new conditions and adapt themselves to the social, political and industrial institutions of their adopted country—in other words, that they become assimilated.

#### BENEFITS FROM IDEAS OF IMMIGRANTS

This fact does not preclude the possibility of immigrants bringing with them from their homeland some ideas that may gradually be worked into the structure of the institutions of their adopted country in such a way as to improve those institutions, but any such change, as a matter of fact, must be slow and, generally speaking, such changes will be few. It is largely on this account that when the immigrant race is widely different in appearance and customs from that of the

country to which it comes, a feeling of hostility growing out of race prejudice is likely to be roused. Such has been the feeling on the western coast of the United States against the Chinese, Japanese and Hindus, owing to the very decided difference in personal characteristics and in habits of living of these people, entirely aside from the question of their influence on wages and the welfare of the wage-earning classes.

DESIRABLE TO EXCLUDE THOSE WHO CAN NOT BE  
ASSIMILATED

Such a feeling is natural, altho, of course, one can not justify race prejudice as such. The coming in of people who will not be assimilated creates discord and makes separate classes or castes in a community. Usually this process does not tend toward an improvement of political institutions, but rather toward their deterioration, entirely aside from the question as to whether the immigrants were lower or higher in the scale of civilization. If the newcomers are so different that they can not be adapted to the conditions prevailing in the country to which they have come, they inevitably produce discord, even tho their habits are fundamentally no worse, either politically or morally, than those of the people with whom they are brought into contact. Of course, if they were powerful enough so that they could promptly mold the institutions of the new type into harmony with their ideas, the situation would be different, but such a state of affairs has not arisen and will not arise with any group of immigrants in this country. It may, therefore, be assumed that the immigrant who can not be adjusted with a reasonable degree of readiness to the customs and institutions of his adopted

country brings an undesirable element into the community and would better be excluded. Those immigrants who can be readily assimilated will be desirable, if their energy is needed to develop the resources of the country to good advantage, tho it may be injurious if they come in so large numbers that regardless of their personal qualifications they can not be assimilated.

### *Changes in Bodily Form*

It has generally been thought that under the educational, social and political conditions now existing in this country, the immigrants from Europe gradually change their habits of living and their ways of thinking and thus soon become Americans. Indeed, some observers have said that they also change in appearance, but until recently no sufficiently careful study had been made to determine whether as a matter of fact the new environment in America produces any marked change in the bodily form of either the immigrants or their immediate descendants. The investigations of the Immigration Commission, however, show that some changes in bodily form of the descendants of immigrants are very noteworthy.\*

#### SHAPE OF SKULL

Not merely do the children of the immigrants in many instances show greater height and weight than the same races in their mother country, but in some cases even the head form, which has always been considered one of the most stable and permanent characteristics of races, undergoes very great changes.

\* Reports of Immigration Commission, Vol. 38.



For instance, the East European Hebrew usually has a round head (brachycephalic). His American-born child becomes more long-headed than his parent, while the descendant of the South Italian, who in Italy has a head of the long type (dolichocephalic), becomes more short-headed than his parent. In other words, in this country, the heads of the descendants of these races that are so markedly different in Europe approach a uniform type, so far as this characteristic of the shape of the head is concerned. This fact is extremely suggestive, inasmuch as it shows that even those characteristics of people that seem to be most permanent are subject to very marked modifications in the American environment.

#### RESULTS OF INVESTIGATIONS

The features of bodily form that were especially studied by the Immigration Commission were stature, weight, length of head, width of head, width of face and color of hair. The types that were examined were the Bohemians, Slovaks, Poles, Hungarians, Hebrews, Sicilians, Neapolitans and Scotch. These were selected because they represent divergent European types, and because, also, they have come to this country of late years in so large numbers. The changes that have been observed, as summarized by Professor Franz Boas of Columbia University, who was in immediate charge of the investigation, are as follows:

The Bohemians, Slovaks and Hungarians, and Poles, representing the type of Central Europe, exhibit uniform changes. Among the American-born descendants of these types the stature increases, and both length and width of head decrease,

the latter a little more markedly than the former, so that there is also a decrease of the cephalic index. The width of the face decreases very materially.

The Hebrews show changes peculiar to themselves. Stature and weight increase; length of the head shows a marked increase, and the width of the head decreases, so that the cephalic index decreases materially; the width of the face also decreases.

Sicilians and Neapolitans, representing the Mediterranean type of Europe, form another group which shows distinctive changes. These are less pronounced among the Neapolitans than among the Sicilians, who are also purer representatives of the Mediterranean type, notwithstanding the many mixtures of races that have occurred in Sicily and the adjoining parts of Italy. The stature of the Sicilians born in America is less than that of the foreign-born. This loss is not so marked among the Neapolitans. In both groups the length of the head decreases, the width of the head increases, and the width of the face decreases.

It should be observed that all these studies were made in the vicinity of the city of New York and that, in consequence, the results could hardly be spoken of as general. While the children of Hebrews that in Russia had been city dwellers increase in stature and weight in this country, as might be supposed from the more favorable food, the children of Sicilians, who in their own country had been country dwellers, seem to lessen in stature, probably because they have become city dwellers here. But the important fact to be kept in mind is that whatever the cause may be, and whether the change in type is for the better or worse, the influence of the new environment is very marked indeed, and we may therefore expect that the degree and ease of assimilation has probably been somewhat greater than has been heretofore assumed.

*Industrial Progress and Efficiency*

As the period of residence increases, the industrial progress and efficiency of the immigrant is noticeable. Handicapped as the southern or eastern European is, however, by an absence of industrial training and experience and the inability to speak English, progress must needs be very slow. The greatest obstacle to a more rapid industrial advancement, as in the case of other lines of progress, lies in the fact that the recent immigrant can not speak English and, as a rule, is so isolated in his working and living arrangements, that he has little opportunity to acquire the language. In this connection his attitude toward the industry in which he is employed should also be considered. In general, it may be said that the southern and eastern European often does not intend to remain permanently in the country or at the work in which he is engaged. His primary object is to earn as much as possible within a limited period of time under the conditions of employment obtaining at the time he begins his work. He is not looking to advancement in the scale of occupations, or to gaining permanently a position in any branch of mining or of manufacturing. Consequently, industrial progress is an individual and not a racial phenomenon. Representatives of all the races of recent arrival in the United States are indeed found scattered through the higher and more remunerative occupations in the principal branches of mining and manufacturing. Very rarely, however, is a recent immigrant employed in a supervisory or administrative position of any importance. The great mass of foreign-born workmen remain in the ranks of unskilled, or semi-skilled, laborers. In cotton and woollen goods

manufacturing, in coal mining and other branches of industry, the southern and eastern European works in connection with machines, but these machines have eliminated the skill formerly required and the immigrants' duties are largely mechanical. From the standpoint of the general industrial situation it may be said that recent immigrant wage-earners as a whole have made substantial advancement in earning ability after a more or less extended period of residence, but the great majority remain in the unskilled occupations, and the comparatively few cases of marked industrial progress are a matter of individual effort and intelligence.

### *Naturalization and Interest in Public Affairs*

The tendency toward the acquisition of citizenship and permanent residence by recent immigrants is not very marked and is largely dependent upon period of residence. A study of 68,942 males who had been in the United States five years and who were twenty-one years of age or over, was made by the Immigration Commission in connection with its industrial investigations, and may be considered representative of the recent alien population. Of this number, all of whom could have been citizens, exactly one-third were fully naturalized, and an additional 16 per cent. had secured first papers. In other words, a fraction less than 50 per cent. of these foreign-born employees had either become citizens or declared their intention to become such. On account of the difference in the length of time the various races have been coming to the United States, a comparison of the older with the more recent immigrants is hardly fair. It is best to separate the

racess into two groups, one including all races of older immigration and the other all races of more recent immigration. When this is done, about seven-tenths of the older, as compared with about three-tenths of the more recent, are shown to be either fully naturalized or to have declared their intention to become so. Altho one race may show a much larger proportion fully naturalized than some other, this other race may and in some instances does show a much larger proportion with first papers. The only conclusion, therefore, to be drawn is that the one with the largest proportion fully naturalized was quicker than the other to appreciate the advantages to be gained by becoming citizens. This result in some instances is probably brought about by a closer association either with earlier arrivals of their own race who have become voters or with Americans.

This is perhaps better illustrated by the recent immigrants than by the older. For instance, among the races studied by the Immigration Commission, the Italians show 35 per cent. fully naturalized and only 10 per cent. additional holding first papers, while the Austrians have 22.1 per cent. fully naturalized, but an additional 31 per cent. holding first papers. Thus it will be seen that the Austrians in reality have manifested greater interest in American citizenship than have the Italians. For this reason it is considered best to combine the proportion of each race fully naturalized with the additional proportion having only first papers. By such a combination it will be seen that the interest in acquiring citizenship manifested by the more recent immigrant male industrial workers who had been in this country a sufficient length of time to apply for naturalization papers ranges as follows:



PERCENTAGE OF RECENT IMMIGRANTS NATURALIZED AND  
HOLDING FIRST PAPERS

RACE	Per cent.	RACE	Per cent.
Bohemian and Moravian	76.2	Italian, South	30.1
Hebrew (other than Russian)	61.6	Russian	28.0
Finnish	61.2	Magyar	26.8
Hebrew, Russian	57.2	Slovak	22.8
Austrian (race not speci- fied)	53.1	Croatian	22.5
Armenian	49.2	Rumanian	21.9
Italian, North	45.8	Syrian	20.7
Italian (not specified)	45.0	Greek	20.2
Bulgarian	36.8	Ruthenian	19.9
Slovenian	35.8	Spanish	13.6
Polish	33.1	Servian	12.8
Lithuanian	32.5	Cuban	12.1
		Portuguese	5.5

As contrasted with the foregoing, the following proportions represent the situation among the older immigrants:

PERCENTAGE OF OLDER IMMIGRANTS NATURALIZED AND  
HOLDING FIRST PAPERS

RACE	Per cent.	RACE	Per cent.
Swedish	92.3	Scotch	79.1
Swiss	92.1	Belgian (race not speci- fied)	76.5
Welsh	87.0	French	66.6
Danish	86.8	Canadian (other than French)	56.7
German	85.7	Canadian, French	31.5
Norwegian	85.6	Mexican	10.0
Irish	82.6		
English	80.6		
Dutch	79.9		

Of the total number of industrial workers studied by the Immigration Commission who had a residence of five years to nine years, only 6.2 per cent. were fully naturalized, as compared with a degree of citizenship of 56.9 per cent. of those with a period of residence of ten years or over. The Swedes, Irish and Finns exhibited the greatest interest in acquiring citizenship shortly after they were eligible. More than



three-fourths of the Bohemian and Moravian, Danish, German, Irish, Norwegian, Scotch, Swedish and Welsh races who had been in the United States ten years or longer had been fully naturalized.

#### CITIZENSHIP AND THE 1920 CENSUS

That 63.9 per cent. of the foreign born of the United States are citizens or on the way to become citizens is one of the most important announcements of the 1920 census. Out of a total of 6,928,027 foreign-born white males, twenty-one years of age and over, 3,314,577, or 47.8 per cent., are reported as being fully naturalized, while 1,116,698, or 16.1 per cent., have taken out their first papers. This marks quite an improvement over the figures of the 1910 census, when only 45.6 per cent. were naturalized and 8.6 per cent. had taken out their first papers. The great advance is to be found here, only 570,772 having first papers in 1910, compared with 1,116,698 in 1920. The reasons for this advance may be found in the World War with its emphasis upon citizenship and extension of opportunities along educational lines which have been instituted by the Federal Government and many State departments of education. The foreign-born women did not make such a good showing as the men in the number naturalized, but this is to be expected under the circumstances as they do not come so generally into contact with outside affairs. The granting of the suffrage, however, makes the problem of the naturalized woman a serious one, even more important than that of the man.

#### *Investments*

Thrift among immigrants exhibits itself in two ways: in the accumulation of bank accounts, and in

the purchase of homes or business property. Closely connected with the first is the remitting of funds to the old country.\* On the other hand, races or individuals that have arrived at the stage where permanent settlement of the entire family in this country has been accomplished, are in the habit of investing their savings in homes and sometimes in business.

No general statistics are available as to the property holdings of recent immigrants.

Mention has already been made of the movements of the southern and eastern Europeans to the land, of the success which they have had in agriculture, and of the extent to which they have secured farm holdings.† In the large urban centers and industrial cities, as might be expected, the acquisition of property has not proceeded beyond small business places on account of the high real estate values. In the smaller industrial towns and cities, however, wherever the opportunity has presented itself, the recent immigrants, the representatives of some races especially, have purchased homes and small business establishments. In the bituminous mining localities of western Pennsylvania, West Virginia, Virginia and Alabama, the southern and eastern Europeans have not to any large extent acquired homes for the reason, as already mentioned, that the company-house system is found in all mining villages and there is no opportunity to purchase property. The same situation is found in a modified way in the copper and iron-ore mining territory of Michigan, Minnesota and the South. In the Northwest and Southwest the company-house system exists in many villages, but not so extensively as in western Pennsylvania and the South. As a conse-

\* See Chapter VII, "Recent Immigrant Institutions."

† See Chapter VI, "The Recent Immigrant as a Farmer."

quence, a large number of immigrant mine-workers have purchased homes in the anthracite coal regions of Pennsylvania and in the bituminous coal mining communities of the Middle West and Southwest. Even in the bituminous mining areas of western Pennsylvania the southern and eastern Europeans have purchased homes and places of business in the urban centers around which the mining villages cluster. As typical of conditions, the extent of the property holdings in Windber, Pennsylvania, a bituminous coal mining community, may be cited.

In this city the Italians, North and South, show a greater tendency to save than any other race. The majority of the South Italians save their money and send it abroad, while most of the North Italians buy real estate. Next to the Italians, the Slovaks save their earnings and usually invest in real estate. The table on p. 296 shows, for the year 1909, property holdings of the foreign races in Windber. That the Slovak holdings are greater than those of the combined Italian races is partly accounted for by the fact that the Slovaks outnumber the Italians. The figures represent taxable property only, but may be accepted as exhibiting the order in which the several races exhibit a tendency to purchase real estate.

The disposition to acquire homes is most noticeable among the North Italians, Slovaks, Scotch and Magyars. These races, in the order named, own the largest amount of taxable property in the town. Immigrants of all races invest in land, even the South Italians, who, however, send most of their savings to Italy to purchase land in that country, or to redeem mortgages and pay taxes on property which they already own abroad.

IMMIGRANT PROPERTY HOLDINGS IN WINDBER, PA.  
(1909)

Race	Value of Property Owned		
	Real	Personal	Total
English .....	\$14,500	\$120	\$14,620
French .....	1,825	....	1,825
German .....	3,508	20	3,528
Hebrew .....	24,584	140	24,724
Italian .....	67,092	560	67,652
Lithuanian .....	9,417	....	9,417
Magyar .....	30,035	140	30,175
Polish .....	8,553	60	8,613
Russian .....	208	20	228
Scotch .....	38,668	480	39,148
Slovak .....	89,815	1,430	91,245
Swedish .....	21,810	80	21,890
Syrian .....	17,000	180	17,180
Welsh .....	2,000	....	2,000
Total <sup>1</sup> .....	329,015	3,230	332,245

<sup>1</sup> This table, to show accurately the relative holdings, should include the number of each race in the community. Unfortunately, such data were unobtainable, and the table should not be used as a basis for conclusions. The Slovaks, Italians, and Magyars, in the order named, are numerically the strongest in the community.

In the larger industrial cities and towns, where the manufacturing companies do not rent houses, the ownership of homes is more common than in mining localities. In the New England textile and other manufacturing centers the acquisition of property by southern and eastern Europeans is not so extensive as in the smaller industrial localities of the Middle States, the Middle West and the Northwest and Southwest. As representative of the conditions in cities and towns, the statement next presented shows, for the year 1909, the aggregate assessment value of the property owned by recent immigrants in Steelton, Pennsylvania, an iron and steel manufacturing community with a population of about 18,000.

AGGREGATE ASSESSMENT VALUE OF PROPERTY OWNED, BY  
RACES, IN STEELTON, PA., 1909

RACE	Wards					Total
	1st	2d	3d	4th	5th	
Bohemian & Moravian .....		\$4,740	.....	.....	.....	\$4,740
Croatian ..	\$19,500	.....	\$3,300	.....	\$17,620	40,420
Dalmatian ..	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,820	2,820
Italian ....	17,700	21,700	.....	.....	.....	39,400
Hebrew ...	21,480	8,440	13,600	.....	28,840	72,360
Macedonian .....	.....	.....	.....	.....	8,100	8,100
Magyar ...	760	.....	.....	.....	.....	760
Polish ....	.....	.....	.....	.....	7,400	7,400
Servian ....	6,060	.....	.....	.....	800	6,860
Slovak ....	.....	.....	5,260	.....	800	6,060
Slovenian ..	35,960	.....	1,200	.....	5,200	42,360
Doubtful ..	2,700	.....	3,000	\$1,040	4,400	11,140
Total ...	104,160	34,880	26,360	1,040	75,980	242,420

The number of property holders of each race was as follows:

FOREIGN-BORN PROPERTY HOLDERS IN STEELTON

RACE	Total	RACE	Total
Bohemian and Moravian	1	Polish .....	7
Croatian .....	28	Servian .....	7
Dalmatian .....	2	Slovak .....	3
Italian .....	37	Slovenian .....	30
Hebrew .....	37	Doubtful .....	6
Macedonian .....	4		
Magyar .....	1	Total .....	163

It will be noted that in point of property owned the order of races is quite different from that in the preceding table. The Hebrews as property owners come first in amount of property owned; then the Slovenians, Croatians, Italians; while the Servians, Macedonians and Magyars are near the end of the list. The Croatian population, it may be explained, consists of a minority who have been in the country for a long term of years, and a majority of more recent comers.



The former have secured property, the latter are still intending to return to Austria-Hungary.

In the second table the Italians and Hebrews are found tying for first place in regard to the number of property owners, with the Slovenians and Croatians not far behind. Referring to the population of these races a truer view of the progress that each has made in the acquisition of property is obtained.

RACE	Population	Number of property owners	Value of property owned
Hebrew,.....	250	37	\$72,360
Macedonian .....	300	4	8,100
Italian .....	375	37	39,400
Magyar .....	400	1	760
Slovenian .....	500	30	42,360
Croatian .....	1,100	28	40,420
Servian .....	1,400	7	6,860

The Italians stand easily first in the acquisition of homes, as the Hebrews stand first in the number of business places established.

Numerous other cases might be presented but the two mentioned are representative. In a general way the purchase of homes and the acquisition of property vary with period of residence, and the tendency toward home ownership does not become noticeable until the immigrant or his family has decided to remain permanently in the United States. Before that decision is reached all savings are accumulated in the form of cash or are sent abroad each month or pay period. As already pointed out, as a rule no personal property is accumulated, the clothing and furniture of the immigrant households and their members being confined to the barest necessities.

Immigrant business men, who are found in all for-



eign colonies and communities as well as in the American sections of mining and manufacturing localities, have in the aggregate accumulated a large amount of property chiefly in the form of small business establishments, together with their equipment and stocks of goods. It is not uncommon to find southern and eastern European business men of this class whose possessions will range in value from twenty to one hundred thousand dollars.

#### OWNERSHIP OF HOMES

Under favorable conditions the tendencies toward acquiring their own homes, exhibited by families the heads of which are of foreign birth and employed in the industries of the United States, may be taken as an indication of progress toward assimilation and of an intention to settle permanently in this country. In many instances, as has been stated, the wage-earner is living and working in a large urban or industrial center where the acquisition of real estate is beyond his resources. In many industrial localities, also, as already pointed out, especially in those connected with the mining industry, the so-called "company-house" system prevails, under which the industrial worker is practically not permitted to buy a home, but must live in a house owned by the operating company and rented to him. Under these and similar conditions, therefore, racial inclinations toward the acquisition of property can not have full play, and statistics as to home ownership based on returns from heads of families engaged in different industrial pursuits and in widely separated industrial localities must be accepted with some qualification. As a consequence, some reservations must be made in the case of the figures

in the table which immediately follows, and an absolutely accurate treatment can be secured only by reference to separate industrial studies and localities.\* The tabulation, however, showing, as it does, by general nativity of head of family, the number and percentage of families owning their homes, is indicative of tendencies within certain limitations. The families the heads of which were native-born, whether of native or foreign father, were studied for purposes of comparison with those the heads of which were foreign-born. The table, which is based upon an investigation of 17,628 families, the heads of which were employed in the principal divisions of mining and manufacturing enterprise in 1909, follows:

NUMBER AND PER CENT. OF FAMILIES OWNING HOME,  
BY GENERAL NATIVITY OF HEAD OF FAMILY

	Total number families	Owning homes	
		Number	Per cent.
Native-Born of Native Father, White	1,187	259	21.8
Native-Born of Foreign Father.....	788	202	25.6
Foreign-Born .....	15,511	3,346	21.6

Upon comparing the general nativity groups it is seen that slightly more than one-fifth, 21.8 per cent., of the families the heads of which were white persons of native birth, and 21.6 per cent. of those the heads of which were of foreign birth, owned their homes. The families of the second generation, or those whose heads were of native birth but of foreign father, reported a slightly larger proportion than the two other nativity groups.

The figures for the families the heads of which

\* See Reports of The Immigration Commission on Immigrants in Industries.

were foreign-born show that the races of older immigration from Great Britain and northern Europe are more extensive home-owners than are the members of races of recent arrival in the United States. The percentage of home ownership among representative races of the old immigration is as follows:

RACE	Per cent.	RACE	Per cent.
Danish .....	50.0	Irish .....	30.2
Dutch .....	70.3	Norwegian .....	50.0
English .....	15.6	Scotch .....	33.6
Finnish .....	56.3	Swedish .....	44.5
German .....	39.7	Welsh .....	51.6

The principal races of recent immigration from southern and eastern Europe make the following showing as to the acquisition of homes:

RACE	Per cent.	RACE	Per cent.
Bohemian and Moravian	63.7	Polish .....	18.1
Canadian, French .....	7.5	Portuguese .....	9.5
Croatian .....	23.5	Rumanian .....	2.6
Greek .....	1.5	Russian .....	1.2
Hebrew .....	6.3	Ruthenian .....	6.7
Italian, North .....	27.8	Servian .....	4.4
Italian, South .....	14.9	Slovak .....	17.6
Lithuanian .....	18.0	Slovenian .....	25.3
Magyar .....	13.7	Syrian .....	4.7

The geographical location of the Bohemians and Moravians in Europe would class them among the more recent immigrants, but the period of time during which they have been coming to the United States would place them among the older immigrant races. They show the largest proportion, or 63.7 per cent., of home-owning families, of all races of recent immigration, the heads of which were native-born of foreign father or foreign-born. On the other hand, the

Finnish families, which show a percentage of home ownership amounting to 56.3, should be geographically classed with the older immigrants from Great Britain and northern Europe, but by period of residence in this country the larger proportion should be termed recent immigrants. Of the families of recent immigration, the North Italians, Slovenians, Croatians, Poles, Lithuanians, Slovaks, South Italians and Magyars have, in the order named, shown proportions ranging from 27.8 to 13.7 per cent. owning their homes. An almost negligible proportion of Russians, Greeks, Rumanians, Servians and Syrians, varying from 1.2 to 4.7 per cent. in the order mentioned, have acquired homes.

### *School Attendance and Progress*

Possibly the chief force that has been active heretofore in the assimilation of immigrants, making them like Americans born, and especially the chief assimilative force among the children whether born here or abroad, is our public schools. In consequence, it seemed to the Immigration Commission\* that much emphasis should be laid upon the school attendance of the children of immigrants. The report of that body included information for a total of 2,036,376 school children, of whom 221,159 were in parochial schools, the others in the public schools. The records covered also 49,067 public-school teachers and 32,882 students in colleges and universities. The study of the public schools was made in 37 different cities, including practically all of the large cities in the country, the first

\* Reports of Immigration Commission, Vols. 29-33.

20 cities in point of population, with the exception of three. The study of parochial schools was made in 24 cities. Seventy-seven of the higher educational institutions sent reports on their students.

In the public schools 766,727, or 42.2 per cent., were children of native-born fathers, while 1,048,490, 57.8 per cent., were children of foreign-born fathers. Of these pupils some were themselves born abroad, some in the United States. Of the total number of children of native-born fathers, 39.5 per cent. were children of white fathers, 2.7 per cent. of native-born negro fathers. Among the children of foreign-born fathers, 318,822 were Hebrews, 17.6 per cent. of the total number. Second in order numerically were the Germans with 11.6 per cent. of the grand total. The Italians were represented by 114,887 pupils, or 6.4 per cent. of the whole. No other race had as many as 100,000 pupils; only two others, the Irish and English, were represented by as many as 50,000. A number of cities show a very high percentage of pupils with foreign-born fathers. The highest per cent. of pupils with foreign-born fathers was found in Duluth, Minnesota, and Chelsea, Massachusetts, each with 74.1 per cent. In New York City 71.5 per cent. had foreign-born fathers; in Chicago 67.3 per cent.; in Boston 63.5 per cent.

New Orleans showed the lowest proportion of pupils of foreign-born fathers, having only 18.1 per cent.; Kansas City ranking next with 21.3 per cent. Where so large a percentage of all the children attending the public schools have foreign-born fathers, it can readily be seen how extremely important is the assimilative force of the public schools in determining what the nature of our citizenship, and, in consequence, of our

Government and of our social institutions of the future, is to be.

This assimilative force is so great that in a second generation a very large proportion of these pupils become to a very noteworthy extent quite Americanized. It, nevertheless, is a matter of great interest to see how the different races compare in the different cities. On p. 305 is inserted a table showing the foreign races that rank first and second in the number of school children in each of the cities studied by the Immigration Commission.

The children of German fathers, it will be noted, rank first in twelve and second in thirteen of these 37 cities. In Milwaukee they form as high as 32 per cent. of the school population; in Detroit, 18.6 per cent. In Chelsea, on the other hand, the Hebrews form 42.5 per cent. of the school population; in New York City, 33.6 per cent.; in Newark, 20.7 per cent. The total composite nature of our population is evidenced by some other examples showing the different nationalities. For example, in Duluth the Swedes have the highest percentage, 21.9 per cent.; in Bay City, Michigan, Canadian, other than French-Canadian, 15.5 per cent. In Boston, the Irish, 16.5 per cent.; in Cedar Rapids, Iowa, the Bohemian-Moravians, 18 per cent.; in New Bedford, Massachusetts, the Portuguese, 23.4 per cent.; while in Shenandoah, Pennsylvania, the Lithuanians rank first with 30.3 per cent.; in Scranton, the Irish, 10.3 per cent.; in Providence, the South Italians with 11.5 per cent.; and again in New Orleans, the South Italians rank first, tho only with 4.6 per cent.; the Germans ranking second with 3.4 per cent.



FOREIGN RACES RANKING FIRST AND SECOND IN NUMBER  
OF PUBLIC SCHOOL PUPILS IN EACH CITY

(In this table the Hebrews of the various nationalities are considered one race)

City	Foreign race ranking first		Foreign race ranking second	
	Race of father of pupil	Per cent of total included for city	Race of father of pupil	Per cent of total included for city
Baltimore .....	Hebrew .....	13.5	German .....	8.7
Bay City .....	Canadian (other than French)....	15.5	German .....	9.3
Boston .....	Irish .....	16.5	Hebrew .....	15.7
Buffalo .....	German .....	17.9	Polish .....	9.5
Cedar Rapids ....	Bohemian and Moravian .....	18.0	German .....	4.3
Chelsea .....	Hebrew .....	42.5	Canadian (other than French)...	10.0
Chicago .....	German .....	16.2	Hebrew .....	10.9
Cincinnati .....	German .....	15.3	Hebrew .....	6.5
Cleveland .....	German .....	17.0	Hebrew .....	11.4
Detroit .....	German .....	18.6	Canadian (other than French)...	11.3
Duluth .....	Swedish .....	21.9	Norwegian .....	12.5
Fall River .....	English .....	18.9	Portuguese .....	13.0
Haverhill .....	Hebrew .....	8.6	Canadian (other than French)...	7.3
Johnstown .....	German .....	8.4	English .....	3.6
Kansas City ....	German .....	4.9	Hebrew .....	4.8
Los Angeles .....	German .....	6.1	English .....	3.8
Lowell .....	Irish .....	17.4	Canadian, French.	9.8
Lynn .....	Canadian (other than French)...	10.5	Hebrew .....	8.1
Manchester .....	Canadian, French.	11.6	German .....	8.2
Meriden .....	German .....	16.7	English .....	7.5
Milwaukee .....	German .....	32.0	Hebrew .....	5.7
Minneapolis .....	Swedish .....	20.0	Norwegian .....	11.2
Newark .....	Hebrew .....	20.7	German .....	14.6
New Bedford ....	Portuguese .....	23.4	English .....	16.2
New Britain .....	Swedish .....	20.2	German .....	11.8
New Orleans ....	Italian, South .....	4.6	German .....	3.4
New York .....	Hebrew .....	33.6	German .....	11.9
Philadelphia ....	Hebrew .....	16.9	German .....	9.4
Pittsburgh .....	Hebrew .....	12.3	German .....	9.4
Providence .....	Italian, South .....	11.5	Irish .....	9.6
St. Louis .....	German .....	15.1	Hebrew .....	7.0
San Francisco ....	German .....	12.3	Irish .....	7.9
Scranton .....	Irish .....	10.3	German .....	7.9
Shenandoah .....	Lithuanian .....	30.3	Polish .....	17.7
South Omaha ....	Bohemian and Moravian .....	14.5	German .....	10.2
Worcester .....	Irish .....	13.8	Swedish .....	13.4
Yonkers .....	Hebrew .....	10.6	German .....	8.6

A considerable variation is found in the different cities, when the different grades in the schools are noted. Naturally, the children of the more newly arrived races rank highest in the lower grades, altho the characteristics of some of the races, and their

attitude toward keeping their children in school, are apparently shown also.

The following table shows, by general nativity and race of father of pupil, the per cent. of pupils in the different kinds of public schools. It has been taken from the reports of the United States Immigration Commission on schools:

PER CENT. OF PUPILS IN THE DIFFERENT GRADES OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS, BY GENERAL NATIVITY AND RACE OF FATHER OF PUPIL

(Races represented by small numbers are not shown separately. Each race shown includes pupils in those cities only in which 200 or more pupils of that race are reported. The totals, however, are for all pupils studied. This table also includes only pupils in the kindergarten, elementary grades, and high school, and does not include pupils in special schools.)

General nativity and race of father of pupil	Number of cities	Per cent. of pupils in—				
		Kinder- garten	Prim'y grades	Gr'm'r grades	High school	Total
Native-born:						
White .....	32	4.3	52.1	34.5	9.1	100.0
Negro .....	17	3.8	69.2	22.9	4.2	100.0
Total .....	32	4.3	53.2	33.7	8.8	100.0
Foreign-born:						
Bohemian and						
Moravian .....	10	4.2	61.4	32.5	1.9	100.0
Canadian, French.	14	2.7	62.4	30.9	4.1	100.0
Canadian, Other...	23	3.0	45.3	41.5	10.3	100.0
Danish .....	7	2.4	49.8	42.6	5.1	100.0
Dutch .....	3	4.8	53.1	37.3	4.8	100.0
English .....	30	3.2	50.7	38.5	7.7	100.0
Finnish .....	4	5.2	61.1	30.1	3.6	100.0
French .....	11	3.3	54.7	36.6	5.4	100.0
German .....	29	4.4	53.8	37.2	4.7	100.0
Hebrew, German..	18	5.4	48.7	38.2	7.8	100.0
Hebrew, Polish...	11	3.0	55.5	38.2	3.3	100.0
Hebrew, Rumanian	7	8.7	60.8	32.4	3.1	100.0
Hebrew, Russian..	30	4.3	62.1	30.2	3.3	100.0
Irish .....	31	3.5	52.3	37.4	6.9	100.0
Italian, North....	16	5.8	69.9	22.7	1.6	100.0
Italian, South....	20	7.8	72.7	18.7	.8	100.0
Lithuanian .....	7	3.1	75.3	20.3	1.4	100.0
Magyar .....	5	7.6	62.6	26.4	3.4	100.0
Norwegian .....	8	3.0	52.4	39.4	5.2	100.0
Polish .....	17	5.8	72.6	20.0	1.6	100.0
Portuguese .....	5	1.0	79.6	18.9	.5	100.0
Russian .....	7	6.2	67.8	21.3	4.7	100.0
Scotch .....	19	3.1	46.9	40.2	9.7	100.0
Slovak .....	8	8.6	74.0	16.6	.7	100.0
Swedish .....	20	2.6	51.3	40.9	5.2	100.0
Welsh .....	6	2.7	49.6	39.9	7.8	100.0
Total .....	32	4.4	57.6	33.3	4.7	100.0
Grand total ....	32	4.4	55.7	33.5	6.4	100.0

The Canadians, other than French, for example, as can be seen from the foregoing table, have 10.3 per cent. of their children in the high schools; the German Hebrews have 7.8 per cent.; the Scotch, 9.7 per cent., and the Welsh, 7.8 per cent. On the other hand, the Slovaks have only 0.7 per cent.; the South Italians, 0.8 per cent.; the Poles, 1.6 per cent.; the Portuguese, 0.5 per cent. The average of all the different foreign-born races in the high schools is 4.7 per cent., while the native-born white show 9.1 per cent. and the negroes 4.2 per cent. In the primary grades the Portuguese have 79.6 per cent. of their children; the Scotch only 46.9 per cent.; the South Italians, 72.7 per cent.; the Lithuanians, 75.3 per cent.; with excepting the Scotch, correspondingly small percentages in the high schools. In the number of children attending the kindergarten, the Slovaks rank first with 8.6 per cent., the South Italians second with 7.8 per cent., whereas the Portuguese have the lowest proportion, only 1 per cent. No inferences may be made, however, from the proportion of different races in different grades because of the varying periods of residence in the United States of the families of the school. It is, of course, to be expected that the races of recent immigration will show the largest proportion of their children in the elementary and intermediate grades, while a large proportion of the children of older immigrants will be found in the higher grades.

Of much greater importance, in many respects, is the condition of affairs as regards retardation; that is, the percentage of the pupils of any race that are older than the normal age for that grade, and the reason why those children are retarded in the public schools, if such is the case. It is assumed that the normal age

of children in the first grade is seven years, and that, in consequence, those who are eight years or over are retarded. For the fifth grade the normal age is eleven, for the eighth grade fourteen. The study shows some very striking figures in this regard. Taking into consideration all the children enumerated in the public schools in all the cities included in the Commission's report, it was found that 34.1 per cent. of the white children with native-born fathers were retarded. Of the native-born negro children 63.5 per cent. were retarded. The average retardation among all the foreign-born races was 36 per cent., only a little higher than that of the average white American-born children of native fathers. Some of the races, however, rank very much higher. The highest degree of retardation was found among the South Italians, 48.6 per cent.; next to them rank the Poles with 48.1 per cent.; the French-Canadians also rank high with 43.1 per cent.; the North Italians with 45.9 per cent., and a number of others rank above 40 per cent. On the other hand, the children of several of the foreign-born races show a less proportion retarded than those of native-born white children with native white fathers. Best of all rank the Finns, with only 27.7 per cent. of retardation; the Canadians, other than French, with 27.9 per cent.; the Swedes, with only 28.7 per cent.; the German Hebrews, 29.9 per cent.; the Dutch, with 31.1 per cent.; the Welsh, 32 per cent.; the English, 33.7 per cent.; the Norwegians, 33.9 per cent.

In a much more detailed study of retardation in a number of cities, a study covering 46,836 pupils, and only pupils of eight years of age and over, some additional interesting facts were given. For example, among those children whose foreign-born fathers were

able to speak English and those who were not, a marked difference was found. Among the German pupils whose fathers spoke English, 31.7 per cent. were retarded, of those whose fathers did not speak English, 40.6 per cent. were retarded. Among the Russian Hebrews, where the fathers spoke English, 34.9 per cent. were retarded; where they did not, 66.6 per cent. The corresponding figures for the South Italians were 59.2 per cent. and 72.7 per cent.

Somewhat similar figures were shown when the foreign-born fathers had taken out their first or second naturalization papers. Among the foreign-born English who had not taken out any naturalization papers, 31.9 per cent. of the children were retarded; if they had taken them out only 24.1 per cent. were retarded. Corresponding figures for the Germans were 42.6 per cent. and 31.6 per cent.; for the Russian Hebrews, 59.4 and 36.4 per cent.; for the South Italians, 71.2 per cent. and 59.6 per cent. Naturally, the figures are much higher if they have not taken out their naturalization papers. That is a sign of length of residence, of interest in America, of readiness to assimilate, of enterprise.

Similarly we find corresponding results if the parents speak or do not speak English at home. Of the pupils in homes where English is used, of the German, 30.4 per cent. are retarded; where English is not used at home, 37.4 per cent. The corresponding figures for the Russian Hebrews are 33 per cent. and 50.7 per cent.; for the South Italians, 56 per cent. and 67.3 per cent.

We should expect to find much better results among those who attend school regularly than among those who do not, and this appears in the report. Of



the pupils eight years of age or over who attended school three-fourths or more of the time, of the native-born whites, 26.2 per cent. were retarded. If they attended less than three-fourths of the time, 43.9 per cent. were retarded. Among the foreign-born, the figures in some instances are higher, and in some instances lower. Among the English, if they attended school three-fourths or more of the time, 22.9 per cent. were retarded; if they attended less than three-fourths of the time, 45.3 per cent. Of the Germans, the corresponding figures are 29.1 per cent., 54.8 per cent.; of the Russian Hebrews, 37.5 per cent., 45.5 per cent.; of the South Italians, 56 per cent., and 85.6 per cent., if they have attended school less than three-fourths of the time.

It was found that altho questions were asked of the teachers regarding the causes of retardation, apparently there had been some misunderstanding so that it was not possible to get the facts accurately enough to tabulate them. Retardation might perhaps be due to a later entrance in school, to a lack of knowledge of the English language, to sickness, to frequent changes of schools, to ill health, mental defects, and other causes. It is unfortunate that the opinions of the teachers were not definite enough so that they could be tabulated. The figures already given, however, indicate the fact that the inability of the fathers to speak English, and the use of a foreign language in the home, are very important factors. The races arriving later in the United States show almost invariably a much higher percentage of retardation than others. The fact, then, that the children of certain races show a greater degree of retardation than do others, is not necessarily a sign of less mental ability,



but rather of some external circumstances that in another generation may entirely disappear.

The reports of the parochial schools, as compared with the public schools, show certain interesting differences, especially as regards the race distribution of pupils in the different schools. For example, the children of foreign-born French-Canadian fathers form only 0.6 per cent. of the total of the public schools, while they are 4.5 per cent. of the total of the parochial schools. The children with foreign-born Hebrew fathers make 17.6 per cent. of the total in public schools and 0.1 per cent. of those in the parochial schools. On the other hand, children with foreign-born Irish fathers make 4.8 per cent. of the total in public schools and 26.9 per cent. of those in the parochial schools. Generally speaking, of course, the races of the Roman Catholic religion have much larger numbers in the parochial schools than do the races with the Protestant religion or especially the Hebrews. In only five of the 24 cities does the same race rank first among foreign races in both the public and parochial schools. In Boston the Irish rank first in both kinds of schools; in Kansas City and Los Angeles, the Germans; in Manchester, New Hampshire, the French-Canadians; in New Orleans, the South Italians.

The report on students of higher educational institutions is of some interest, but of not so great value for the study of the immigration problem. In the colleges the percentage of native-born white children of native-born parents is much higher than in the public schools, as is of course to be expected, forming, in the institutions studied, 64 per cent. of the whole. A considerably larger proportion of the males than of the

females were foreign-born; 11.6 per cent. of the males, 5.4 per cent. of the females.

Some interesting figures are found in regard to the apparent tendency of certain races to enter special occupations. For example, among the male students, native-born of foreign fathers, 11.6 per cent. of those studying theology are Irish, 6.3 per cent. of those studying law, 3.7 per cent. of those in medicine; while the Hebrew students, male, native-born of foreign fathers, form 7.3 per cent. of those studying law and only 0.1 per cent. of those studying theology. Evidently the Irish are much more inclined toward the study of theology than the Hebrews.

On the whole, the study of the schools shows an extremely hopeful feature, the foreign-born, generally speaking, taking great interest in the schools which form the chief assimilative force among them.

Inasmuch as the welfare of our school children is so largely dependent upon the teachers, it is a matter of special interest to note the nativity and races of the teachers in the public schools. The number of teachers regarding whom information concerning races was secured was 49,067. Of that number 94.2 per cent. were native-born, but 42.8 per cent. of the entire number were native-born of foreign parents. Six of the foreign races were represented by more than one hundred teachers each, as follows:

Hebrew, various nationalities.....	713
English .....	435
Irish .....	404
German .....	317
Canadian other than French.....	311
Scotch .....	271

The five races showing the largest number of teachers who were native-born of foreign father are as follows:

Irish, 8,723, forming 17.8 per cent. of the total number; German, 3,946, 8 per cent.; English, 2,294, 4.7 per cent.; Hebrew, 1,639, 3.3 per cent.; Scotch, 1,110, 2.3 per cent.

A few of the cities investigated that show the largest proportion of foreign-born teachers are Duluth, with 10.4 per cent; Detroit, 9.5 per cent.; Chicago, 8.1 per cent.; New York, 7.9 per cent. The cities showing the largest proportion of teachers who were native-born with foreign father are: Shenandoah, 69.3 per cent.; Scranton, 59.7 per cent.; San Francisco, 57.0 per cent.; seven of the thirty cities showing more than one-half of the teachers as immigrants of the second generation. On the whole, however, it is interesting to note that in twenty-seven of these cities the teachers who were native-born white with a native-born father form a larger proportion of the total than do the teachers of any other race. In three cities—Shenandoah, Worcester and Scranton, the Irish of the second generation have the highest percentage. In seven of the thirty cities more than ten per cent. are German of the second generation; in eight more than a fourth of the teachers for whom information was secured are Irish of the second generation. As would be expected, the Germans predominate in the Middle West—Cincinnati, Milwaukee, St. Louis, Cleveland; the Irish in the East—Shenandoah, Worcester, Lowell, Fall River; but there is also one noteworthy exception, in San Francisco, where the Irish of the second generation form 28.2 per cent. of the teachers.

These figures, taken as a whole, are especially reassuring. Complaint has been made that in many instances the children are taught by foreign-born teachers whose knowledge of English is so imperfect that the children are sure to fail to acquire a satisfactory knowledge of the language which they should use with accuracy. Altho, doubtless, there are individual instances where this is the case, the figures given above show that inasmuch as less than 6 per cent. of the teachers are foreign-born, this can not be a factor so significant as is often imagined. Generally speaking, the native-born of foreign parents speak English with substantially the same accuracy as those native-born of native parents. In other regards there is no reason for believing that the equipment of either the foreign-born or of the native-born of foreign parents for the work of teaching is materially less satisfactory than that of the native-born.

#### ABILITY TO SPEAK ENGLISH

Inability to speak English, as a matter of fact, is the greatest obstacle to the proper distribution of the recent immigrant population. It causes segregation of the immigrant races in industrial towns and large cities, and prevents proper contact with American life and institutions. Moreover, the recent immigrant, until he has acquired a knowledge of English, must remain in the ranks of unskilled labor, even if he has been a farmer or has had technical training abroad. As soon as a knowledge of English is obtained, not only standards of living change, but there also occurs a distribution and proper adjustment upon an industrial basis. This condition of affairs is quite plainly seen among members of races of southern and eastern

Europe who have had a long period of residence in this country.

There is a rapid advancement in the proportion of persons able to speak English corresponding to an increased period of residence in the United States. Of the total number of 211,000 immigrant wage-earners in mines and factories studied by the Immigration Commission who had been in this country less than five years, only 28.6 per cent. could speak English, as contrasted with 59.6 per cent. with a residence of five to nine years and 83.1 per cent. who had been in the United States ten years or over. The smallest proportion of employees able to speak English with a residence under five years were, in the order named, the Cuban, Portuguese, Bulgarian, Turkish, Ruthenian, Polish, Macedonian, Greek, Finnish, Lithuanian, South Italian, Russian and Rumanian races, all of which fall below the general showing for the total number of foreign-born wage-earners who have been here that length of time. Of the employees with a residence of five to nine years, the Cubans exhibited a percentage of only 15.2, and the Spaniards of 16.4, with ability to speak English, while the French-Canadians, South Italians, Montenegrins, Poles, Portuguese, and Ruthenians showed less than that for the average within this residence period. Of the employees who had been in the United States ten years or longer, the Cubans, Spaniards, Mexicans, Portuguese, South Italians, Servians, Syrians, Poles, French-Canadians and Magyars, all of whom had less than four-fifths of their number able to speak English, indicate, in the order mentioned, the least progress in this regard.

As regards the males from southern and eastern Europe with a residence of ten years or over, the



smallest proportion of wage-earners able to speak English was exhibited by the Servians; the showing of the Poles, Portuguese, Magyars and South Italians being but slightly more favorable. The lowest percentages of all are found in the case of the Cubans and Spaniards, almost three-fifths of whom can not speak English.

The males not only show a larger proportion than the females in each period of residence, with the ability to use our language, but exhibit greater progress in acquiring it after specified periods of residence. This is due, of course, to the greater segregation of the females and their more limited opportunities for contact with American life and institutions. Of the southern and eastern European females who have been in this country ten years or longer, the South Italians exhibit the smallest proportion with ability to speak English. The Polish, Portuguese, Finnish and Syrian women make a somewhat better showing than the South Italians, but fall below the proportion for the total foreign-born females.

A much greater proportion of immigrants who were under fourteen years of age when they came to the United States can speak English at the present time than those who were fourteen years of age or over when they immigrated to this country. This is due, as might be expected, not only to the greater adaptability of the younger immigrants, but also to their greater opportunities in the way of attending the public schools and in mingling with native Americans.

Progress and assimilation along all lines is conditioned more upon knowledge of our language than upon any other factor. Congestion in large cities and industrial localities as well as the establishment of



immigrant colonies arises largely from the inability of the southern and eastern European to use English readily. Immigrant banks and similar institutions have their origin in the same cause. The exploitation of the immigrant has its foundation upon the same lack of English-speaking ability. On the other hand, with a larger proportion of immigrants who can speak the language, a much greater dissemination of the foreign-born population may be expected together with its more rapid absorption and assimilation. Progress in industry, in business, in the trades and professions and in the accumulation of property, are all primarily dependent upon the development in the recent immigrant population of an English-speaking ability.

### *Summary Conclusions*

The causes opposing the Americanization of the recent immigrant population may be briefly summarized as follows:

(1) Isolation from the natives of a large part of the immigrant population.

(2) Indifference, and to some extent prejudice, on the part of natives toward immigrants.

(3) Illiteracy of a large proportion of immigrants.

(4) Ignorance resulting from the peasant origin of nearly all of the southern European immigrants, and their unpreparedness for so decided changes in environment.

(5) The influence of immigrant churches and parochial schools in emphasizing and maintaining racial and denominational distinctions.

(6) Inability to speak English.

Those factors favorable to the Americanization of the southern and eastern European are:

(1) Employment of immigrants in American industries.

(2) Employment of immigrant women as servants in American households.

(3) Residence to some extent of immigrants among natives and the association resulting therefrom.

(4) Attendance of immigrant children in American public schools and the teaching of the English and American branches in the immigrant parochial schools.

(5) The influence of immigrant priests and pastors in bringing about permanency of residence through the stimulation of property owning and home-making.

## XVIII

### LEGISLATION AND ADMINISTRATION\*

The first legislation by the National Government regarding immigration was enacted in 1882. Previous to this time the matter of regulation and inspection of immigrants arriving at our ports rested entirely with the individual States.

The history of legislation relative to immigration by both State and National Governments may be divided into four periods: (1) from colonial times until 1835; (2) the "Native American" and "Know-Nothing" period, lasting from 1835 to 1860; (3) end of State control, 1861-1882; (4) the period of National control, 1882 down to the present time.

During the first of the above-mentioned periods, the States alone interested themselves with the question of immigration. The only legislation enacted, and practically all that was proposed, by the Federal Government was the law of 1819 which aimed to secure some degree of comfort and convenience for steerage passengers en route to this country. This law, also, for the first time provided that statistics and records regarding immigration to the United States should be kept.

\* This chapter in large part is based upon the monograph entitled, "Federal Immigration Legislation," which was prepared for the former United States Immigration Commission by Special Agent Frank L. Shaw (see Reports of The Immigration Commission, Volume 39). Mr. Shaw's treatment of the subject up to the year 1910 is elaborate and accurate. The abstract of his report, which appears in Volume 2 of the Reports of The Immigration Commission is so satisfactory that the authors of the present book felt that nothing better could be written for their purposes, and, as a consequence, have transcribed a considerable part of this digest, some of which has been edited or set forth in a different order from that in which it originally appears.

*The "Native American" and "Know-Nothing"  
Movements*

The second period, from 1835 to 1860, is sharply defined by the so-called "Native American" and "Know-Nothing" movements, which, as is generally known, were largely based on opposition to the immigration of Roman Catholics. This hostility early in the thirties took the form of a political movement. In 1835 there was a Nativist candidate for Congress in New York City, and in the following year that party nominated a candidate for mayor of the same city. In Germantown, Pennsylvania, and in Washington, D. C., Nativist societies were formed in 1837, while in Louisiana the movement was organized in 1839 and a State convention was held two years later at which the Native American party, under the name of the American Republican party, was established. The chief demands of this convention were a repeal of the naturalization laws and the appointment of only native Americans to office.

While these societies were stronger in local than in National politics, and were organized chiefly to aid in controlling local affairs, the few representatives of the order in Congress attempted to make Nativism a National question. As a result of their efforts, the United States Senate, in 1836, agreed to a resolution directing the Secretary of State to collect certain information respecting the immigration of foreign paupers and criminals.\* In the House of Representatives, on February 19, 1838, a resolution was agreed to which provided that the Committee on the Judiciary be instructed to consider two questions: (1) the ex-

\* See Chapter IV, Social Effects of Immigration.

pediency of revising the naturalization laws so as to require a longer term of residence in the United States, and also provide greater security against frauds in the process of obtaining naturalization; and (2) the propriety and expediency of providing by law against the introduction into the United States of vagabonds and paupers deported from foreign countries. This resolution was referred to a select committee of seven members, and its report was the first resulting from a Congressional investigation of any question bearing upon immigration. Four members of the committee were from New York and Massachusetts, which States were then the chief centers of the anti-foreign movement. Its majority report recommended immediate legislative action, not only by Congress, but also by many of the States, so that the alleged evils could be remedied and impending calamities averted. Two Southern members of the committee and the member from Ohio did not concur in the report. A recommendation to this committee by the native American Association of Washington urged that a system of consular inspection be instituted, a plan that in recent years has been repeatedly recommended to Congress. The plan was to make the immigrant, upon receiving his passport from the consul, pay a tax of \$20, but this latter provision was omitted from the bill when introduced.

The bill as presented upon the recommendation of the committee provided that any master taking on board his vessel, with the intention of transporting to the United States, any alien passenger who was an idiot, lunatic, maniac, or one afflicted with any incurable disease, or any one convicted of an infamous crime, should be fined \$1,000, or be imprisoned not

less than one year nor more than three. It was further proposed that the master should forfeit \$1,000 for any alien brought in who had not the ability to maintain himself. Congress did not even consider this bill, and during the next ten years little attempt was made to secure legislation against the foreigner.

As a consequence of the sudden and great increase of immigration from Europe between 1848 and 1850, due to the unsettled conditions of affairs on the continent, the old dread of the foreigner was revived to its former intensity, and in the early fifties the native American movement again became active. The new, like the earlier, agitation, was closely associated with the anti-Catholic propaganda. The new organization assumed the form of a secret society. Its meetings were secret, its endorsements were never made openly, and even its name and purpose were said to be known only to those who reached the highest degree. Consequently, the rank and file, when questioned about their party, were obliged to answer, "I don't know"; so they came to be called "Know-Nothings."

By 1854, much of the organization's secrecy had been put aside. Its name, "Order of the Star Spangled Banner," and its meeting places, were known; and it openly endorsed candidates for office and put forward candidates of its own. It is recorded that in 1855, in New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, California, and Kentucky, the Governors and legislatures were "Know-Nothings"; while the party had secured the choice of land commissioner of Texas, and the legislature and comptroller of Maryland. Encouraged by this success in State affairs, the party, in 1855, began to make plans for the next Presidential election. In that year



a National council was held in Philadelphia. A platform was adopted which called for a change in the existing naturalization laws, the repeal by the legislatures of several States of laws allowing foreigners not naturalized to vote, and also for the repeal by Congress of all acts making grants of land to unnaturalized foreigners and allowing them to vote in the Territories.

The party held a National convention at Philadelphia in the following year and 27 States were represented by 227 delegates. Almost all the delegates from New England, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Illinois, and Iowa withdrew from the convention when a motion was made to nominate a candidate for President. The withdrawing minority wanted an anti-slavery plank. Those remaining nominated Millard Fillmore for President. The principles of the platform adopted at this convention were that Americans should rule America, and that to this end native-born citizens should be selected for all State, federal and municipal government employment in preference to all others. A change in the laws of naturalization, making continued residence of twenty-one years an indispensable requisite for citizenship, and a law excluding all paupers or persons convicted of crime from landing in the United States, were also demanded.

The Whig party, which held a convention the following September, also nominated Millard Fillmore for the Presidency. The Whigs did not, however, adopt the platform of the "Know-Nothings," and even referred to "the peculiar doctrines of the party which has already selected Mr. Fillmore as a candidate." At the November election in 1856, Mr. Fillmore received only 874,534 votes, carrying but one State, Mary-

land. It is impossible to say how many of these votes were attributable to his supporters among the "Know-Nothing" party.

The "Know-Nothing" strength in Congress was greatest in the Thirty-fourth Congress, 1854 to 1856. They had no openly avowed representatives in the Thirty-third Congress, while in the Thirty-fourth they claimed 43 Representatives and 5 Senators, aside from 70 Republicans who were said to be members of "Know-Nothing" councils. In the Thirty-fifth Congress the "Know-Nothings" claimed 5 Senators and 14 Representatives, and about the same number were in the Thirty-sixth and Thirty-seventh; but in the Thirty-eighth Congress the party was not represented in either branch.

Being in a minority in Congress, the "Know-Nothings" but slightly influenced National legislation. In naturalization bills introduced, they proposed to lengthen the period of residence, usually demanding that it be made twenty-one years, but their proposed laws affecting immigration were, as a rule, only directed against the exclusion of foreign paupers and criminals. The "Know-Nothings" disappeared without having accomplished anything against immigration, adopted citizens, or Catholics. As a matter of fact, some National legislation favorable to foreigners was passed during this period of agitation. In 1847, and again in 1848, the passenger law of 1819 was amended in order to improve conditions in the steerage quarters of immigrant ships.

*State Legislation Abandoned*

Altho the National Government did not assume control of immigration until 1882, Congress, in 1864, passed a law to encourage immigration. This law, which was repealed in 1868, represents the only attempt of the Government to promote immigration by direct legislation, altho frequently the States have made such attempts. President Lincoln, in his annual message to the first session of the Thirty-seventh Congress, favored a proposal of the Territories for encouraging immigration, and in a subsequent message, December 8, 1863, he strongly recommended National legislation of the same nature. The bill which was the outcome of this message, and which became a law July 4, 1864, provided for the appointment by the President of a Commissioner of Immigration to act under the direction of the Department of State. All contracts that should be made in foreign countries by emigrants to the United States whereby immigrants pledged the wages of their labor for a term not exceeding twelve months to repay the expenses of emigration, should be held to be valid in law, and might be enforced in the courts of the United States and Territories, and no such contract could in any way be considered as creating a condition of slavery or servitude. It was further provided that an immigration office should be established in New York City, with a Superintendent of Immigration at its head, who was charged with arranging for the transportation of immigrants to their final destination and protecting them from imposition and fraud.

Following the enactment of the law of 1864, several companies were established to deal in immigrant con-

tract labor, but they were not satisfied with the law and wanted its scope enlarged. In 1866 the House of Representatives passed a bill amending the act of 1864, the principal provision being to increase the number of commissioners of immigration, the additional commissioners to be stationed in various cities along the Atlantic Coast. The Senate, however, did not agree to the amendment. During the following decade the discussion is chiefly important in revealing the inadequacy of State control of immigration, and the development of a movement for National control, culminating in 1876 in a decision of the Supreme Court, which practically left no alternative other than National regulation.

### *State Control Declared Unconstitutional*

Up to this time various questions relating to the subject of immigration had been considered by the Supreme Court of the United States. The first of these cases was that of the State of New York vs. Miln, which tested the constitutionality of a law passed by the legislature of the State of New York in 1824, requiring all masters of vessels arriving at the port to make a report in writing and give the name, age and last legal residence of every person on board during the voyage, and stating whether any of their passengers had gone on board any other vessel or had been landed in any place with a view of proceeding to New York. Another section made it lawful for the mayor of the city to require a bond from every master of a vessel to indemnify the mayor and the overseer of the poor for any expense incurred for passengers brought in and not reported. The

United States Supreme Court held that the New York act was not a regulation of commerce, but of police; and, being so, it was in exercise of a power which rightfully belonged to the State.

Justice Story, dissenting from the decision of the court, thought the law unconstitutional, and said, in part:

The result of the whole reasoning is that whatever restrains or prevents the introduction or importation of passengers or goods into the country authorized or allowed by Congress, whether in the shape of a tax or other charge, or whether before or after their arrival in port, interferes with the exclusive right to regulate commerce.

This law being held to be constitutional, New York, in 1829, in providing for the support of the marine and quarantine hospital established on Staten Island, ordered that the health commissioner should collect from the master of every vessel arriving from a foreign port, \$1.50 for every cabin passenger; \$1.00 for every steerage passenger, mate, sailor, or marine; and 25 cents for every person arriving on coasting vessels. The money so collected, after deducting 2 per cent., was to be used for the benefit of the above-mentioned hospital.

In 1837, Massachusetts enacted a law which provided for the inspection of arriving alien passengers and required a bond from the owner of the vessel bringing such aliens as security that such of these passengers as were incompetent in the eyes of the inspectors to earn a living, should not become a public charge within ten years. It also provided that \$2 be paid for each passenger landed, the money so collected to be used for the support of foreign paupers.



In 1849 these two legislative acts were declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court, in what are known as the "Passenger Cases." Immediately after the decision of the Supreme Court, the New York statute was modified with a view to avoiding the constitutional objection. As modified, the law provided for the master or owner of every vessel landing passengers from a foreign port to make a report similar to the one recited in the statute declared to be valid in the case of *New York vs. Miln*, in which report the mayor was to endorse a demand upon the owner or master that he give a bond for every passenger landed in the city to indemnify the commissioners of immigration, and every county, city and town in the State against any expense for the relief or the support of the person named in the bond for four years thereafter; but the owner could commute for such bond and be released from giving it by paying \$1.50 for each passenger landed.

In several other States similar laws were in force. Cases were brought up to the Supreme Court from New York, California and Louisiana, and the laws were declared unconstitutional. The most interesting part of this decision, however, was that in which the court, in a most unusual proceeding, recommended that Congress exercise full authority over immigration, saying:

We are of the opinion that this whole subject has been confided to Congress by the Constitution; that Congress can more appropriately and with more acceptance exercise it than any other body known to our law, State or national; that, by providing a system of laws in these matters applicable to all ports and to all vessels, a serious question which has long been a matter of contest and complaint may be effectively and satisfactorily settled.



### *Control by the Federal Government*

By the above decision the States were left without the means, except by taxing their citizens, of providing suitable inspection of immigrants arriving at their ports, or of caring for the destitute among those admitted. The only alternative was the recommendation of the Supreme Court that Congress assume control of immigration legislation, and New York representatives in Congress immediately endeavored to secure the passage of a general immigration law. The above-quoted case was decided by the Supreme Court, March 20, 1876, and on July 6, following, Senator Conkling and Representative Cox of New York introduced bills for the National regulation of immigration. No legislation was enacted, however, until 1882.

### *The Law of 1882*

In his message of December 6, 1881, President Arthur called attention to the subject of immigration control and recommended supervisory legislation. On August 3, 1882, the first general immigration law was approved. This law provided for a head tax of 50 cents to be levied on all aliens landed at United States ports, the money thus collected to be used to defray the expenses of regulating immigration, and for the care of immigrants after landing, no more being expended at any port than had been collected there. The Secretary of the Treasury was charged with executing the provisions of the act. For that purpose he was given power to enter into contracts with such State officers as might be designated by the Governor of any State to take charge of the local

affairs of immigration within such State. This law provided that foreign convicts (excepting those convicted of political offenses), lunatics, idiots, and persons likely to become public charges, should not be permitted to land.

On February 26, 1885, the first act of Congress forbidding the importation of contract labor was approved. This law was defective in that it did not provide for inspection, nor was any arrangement made for the general execution of the provisions of the law, or for the deportation of the contract laborer himself. It was amended by the act of February 23, 1887, and again by that of October 9, 1888, the Secretary of the Treasury being given the authority to deport within the year any immigrant landed contrary to this law. From 1882 to 1888, aside from the enactment of the contract labor laws referred to, there was little attempt at other immigrant legislation. Numerous bills in amendment of the laws of 1882 were introduced in Congress, but no action was taken upon them.

The subject of immigration continued to be a matter of interest, however, and in 1889 a standing Committee on Immigration in the Senate and a Select Committee on Immigration and Naturalization in the House were established. In 1890, these committees were authorized jointly to make an inquiry relative to immigration, and to investigate the workings of the various laws of the United States, and of the several States relative to immigration. A number of reports were submitted, the conclusion of the committee being that a radical change in the immigration laws was not advisable, altho it had been found that throughout the country there existed a demand for a stricter enforce-

ment of the immigration laws. During 1890 one or more political parties in 23 States had demanded additional regulation of immigration, and further legislation was passed by Congress and approved by the President on March 3, 1891.

This act, as in the case of that of 1882, provided for a head tax of 50 cents, merely to defray the expenses of securing a proper administration of the law. Persons suffering from a loathsome or a dangerous contagious disease, and polygamists, were added to the classes excluded by the act of 1882, and it was also provided that "assisted persons, unless affirmatively shown that they did not belong to any excluded class," should be debarred. The contract labor law was strengthened by prohibiting the encouragement of immigration by promises of employment through advertisements published in any foreign country, and transportation companies were forbidden to solicit or encourage immigration.

Under the law of 1891 the office of Superintendent of Immigration was authorized, and for the first time Federal control of immigration was completely and definitely established, United States officials exercising the functions which, under the law of 1882, had been delegated to the States. It now became the duty of the commanding officer of every vessel carrying aliens to report to the proper inspection officials the name, nationality, last residence and destination of all such immigrants; all decisions of the inspection officials refusing any alien the right to land were final, unless appeal was taken to the Secretary of the Treasury; the medical examinations of immigrants at United States ports were to be made by surgeons of the United States Marine-Hospital Service; and for the

first time an inspection of immigrants on the borders of Canada and Mexico was established. Another provision not found in the law of 1882 was that which allowed the return within a year after arrival of any alien who was found to have entered the United States in violation of law, such return being at the expense of the transportation company or person bringing such alien into the country.

### *The Investigations of 1892*

Notwithstanding the new law, however, the question of immigration continued to receive attention in Congress, and was extensively agitated throughout the country, a strong movement for restriction being developed, owing to the industrial depression, 1890-1896, and the general curtailment of employment. Extensive investigations were also conducted by joint committees of Congress and by the Industrial Commission, but with the exception of an amendment to an appropriation act in 1894, raising the head tax on immigrants from 50 cents to \$1.00, no immigration legislation was enacted until 1903. The agitation of the subject in Congress was continuous, however, and the period is interesting chiefly because of the adoption by both houses of Congress of a bill providing for an educational test for immigrants and the veto of the bill by President Cleveland.

The final report of the Industrial Commission, containing recommendations relative to immigration legislation, was submitted to Congress on February 20, 1902, and shortly afterward a bill was introduced in the House which was substantially in accord with the recommendations made. The principal object of the

bill was to codify in concise form all immigration legislation previously enacted, from the act of March 3, 1875, to the act of 1894, and to arrange the legislation in regular order and sequence according to the specific subjects dealt with in the bill.

When the Industrial Commission bill was before the House, an amendment was added providing for the exclusion of all persons over 15 who were unable to read the English language or some other language, excepting the wives, children under 18 years of age, and parents and grandparents of admissible immigrants. The amendment was adopted in the House by a vote of 86 to 7, and the bill thus amended passed the House on May 27, 1902. The Senate did not act upon it until the following session. Besides eliminating the educational test, and raising the head tax from \$1 to \$2, the Senate also added provisions making it unlawful for any person to assist in the unlawful entry or naturalization of alien anarchists, all of which amendments were accepted by the House. Before the final passage of the bill a provision was added providing that no alien, even if belonging to the excluded classes, should be deported if liable to execution for a religious offense in the country from which he came, but this provision was eliminated in conference. The bill was approved by the President, March 3, 1903.

From the act just mentioned until the act of February 20, 1907. Congress did not enact any laws of general importance affecting immigration. On February 14, 1903, the Department of Commerce and Labor was established, and the Commissioner-General of Immigration was placed under the jurisdiction and supervision of that department. By the



law of June 29, 1906, providing for a uniform rule for the naturalization of aliens, the designation of the Bureau of Immigration was changed to the "Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization," and it was charged with the administration of the new naturalization law.

### *The Immigration Law of 1907*

Following the popular demand for further regulation of alien immigration there were introduced in the first session of the Fifty-ninth Congress several bills relating to this subject, and bills were passed in both branches of Congress, but no law was finally enacted until the second session of that Congress. A bill introduced by Senator Dillingham of Vermont, which provided for some important administrative changes in the immigration act of 1903, was reported from the Senate committee, March 29, 1906. The bill, as reported, proposed several changes in the law. The head tax on immigrants was now to be \$5 instead of \$2, as formerly; imbeciles, feeble-minded persons, unaccompanied children under 17 years of age, and persons "who are found to be and are certified by the examining surgeon as being mentally or physically defective, such mental or physical defect being of such a nature as may affect the ability of such aliens to earn a living," were added to the excluded classes; the provision of the existing law excluding prostitutes was amended to include "women or girls coming into the United States for the purpose of prostitution, or for any other immoral purpose"; steamship companies were required to furnish lists of outgoing passengers; and the creation of a division of distribution in the Bureau of Immigration was authorized.



In the Senate the bill was amended by the insertion of a literacy test which provided for the exclusion from the United States of "all persons over 16 years of age and physically capable of reading, who can not read the English language or some other language; but an admissible immigrant or a person now in or hereinafter admitted to this country may bring in or send for his wife, his children under 18 years of age, and his parents or grandparents over 50 years of age, if they are otherwise admissible, whether they are able to read or not." The bill as amended passed the Senate May 23, 1906, and in the House was referred to the Committee on Immigration and Naturalization. This committee recommended the substitution of a House bill which, however, did not differ materially from that of the Senate. The head tax provision was the same, and the additions to the excluded classes practically so, and the House bill included a literacy test similar to that of the Senate. The bill as originally reported by the House committee also provided for the exclusion of every adult male who had not \$25 in his possession, and every female alien and every male alien under 16 years of age not possess of \$15, provided that \$50 in the possession of the head of the family would be considered a sufficient amount for all members of such family, except grown sons.

In a subsequent bill and report, presented June 11, 1906, however, the money qualification feature was omitted. The reports of the House committee were accompanied by a minority report, signed by two members of the committee, Mr. Bennet and Mr. Rupert, both of New York, in which the increased head tax and the educational test provisions were disagreed to. In the House of Representatives the bill was

amended by striking out the increased head-tax provision and the provision for a literacy test, by inserting a section creating the Immigration Commission, and by adopting the so-called Littauer amendment which provided as follows:

That an immigrant who proves that he is seeking admission to this country solely to avoid prosecution or punishment on religious or political grounds, for an offense of a political character, or prosecution involving danger of punishment, or danger to life or limb on account of religious belief, shall not be deported because of want of means or the probability of his being unable to earn a livelihood.

In conference the Senate receded from its provision relative to a literacy test; the House receded from the Littauer amendment; the head-tax provision was compromised by making it \$4, instead of \$5 as provided by the Senate, and \$2 as provided by the House; the House amendment creating the Immigration Commission was agreed to with an amendment, which provided that the Commission should consist of three Senators, three members of the House of Representatives, and three persons to be appointed by the President of the United States, instead of two Senators, three members of the House, and two citizen members, as was provided in the House amendment. The Commission was directed to make a complete investigation and to report its findings to Congress. The President was also authorized at his discretion to call an international conference for the purpose of regulating immigration.

The conferees also added a new section (Sec. 42) to the bill amending Section 1 of the passenger act of 1882 relative to air space allotted steerage passen-

gers, and amended Section 1 of the immigration bill under consideration by inserting the following provision:

That whenever the President shall be satisfied that passports issued by any foreign government to its citizens to go to any country other than the United States, or to any insular possession of the United States, or to the Canal Zone, are being used for the purpose of enabling the holders to come to the continental territory of the United States to the detriment of labor conditions therein, the President may refuse to permit such citizens of the country issuing such passports to enter the continental territory of the United States from any other country or from such insular possessions or from the Canal Zone.

Later this provision of the law was utilized for the purpose of excluding Japanese and Korean laborers from the United States. This bill was approved February 20, 1907, and is the present law on the subject of immigration.

### *Legislation for the Suppression of the White-Slave Traffic*

By the act of March 26, 1910, sections two and three of the immigration law of February 20, 1907, were amended to prevent more effectively the importation of women and girls for immoral purposes and their control by importers and others after their admission to the United States, following recommendations of the Immigration Commission on that subject.

By the act of March 26th the following were added to the classes excluded by Section 2 of the Immigration Act: "Persons who are supported by or

receive in full or in part the proceeds of prostitution." Under the terms of the act of 1907 "women or girls coming into the United States for the purpose of prostitution or for any other immoral purpose," were specifically excluded from the United States. Under that law, however, there was no specific provision for the exclusion of that particularly reprehensible class of persons referred to in the act of March 26, 1910. By the amendment of Section 3 of the law of 1907, additional means were provided for the punishment and deportation of aliens who in any way profited by or derived benefit from the proceeds of prostitution. The agitation regarding the white-slave traffic also resulted in the enactment of a law prohibiting the transportation of persons from one State to another for the purposes of prostitution, providing for drastic punishment of those engaged in this awful traffic.

### *The Dillingham-Barnett Bill*

After the report of the Immigration Commission, recommending emphatically restriction of immigration with the purpose of maintaining among wage-earners in the United States a high standard of living, and indicating the literacy test as the most feasible method of restriction, a bill was passed by Congress incorporating the literacy test, but was vetoed by President Taft.\*

### *The Second Dillingham Bill*

After the failure of the Dillingham-Burnett bill further study of the question led Senator Dillingham to suggest a new method of restriction of immigration which should not be open to the objections to the

\* See Chapter 28 for detailed information.

literacy test raised by President Taft. He, therefore, on June 2, 1913, introduced a bill regarding which he made the following statement explaining its method, purpose and probable results:

"This bill, if enacted into law, will materially reduce immigration from southern and eastern Europe and western Asia. The bill is similar in many respects to the Dillingham-Burnett bill which was vetoed by President Taft at the last session of Congress on the ground that it provided for the exclusion of illiterate immigrants. The literacy test for immigrants is omitted from the present bill, however, and as a substitute means of restricting immigration of the class referred to, it is provided that the number of aliens of any nationality, exclusive of temporary visitors, who may be admitted to the United States in any fiscal year shall not exceed 10 per cent. of the number of persons of such nationality resident in the United States at the time of the United States Census next preceding, but the minimum number of any nationality admissible in any fiscal year shall not be less than 5,000. Countries of the western hemisphere are exempted from the operation of the provision. According to the bill, nationality is to be determined by country of birth rather than of residence, but the term country does not include colonies or dependencies, which are considered as separate countries.

"The bill provides that when the maximum number of any nationality have been admitted, all other aliens of such nationality who may apply for admission during the same fiscal year shall be excluded, except that aliens returning from a temporary visit abroad, and aliens coming to join near relatives, as well as



members of professional and business classes, may be admitted without reference to such maximum number. It is also provided that the Secretary of Labor may admit aliens in excess of the maximum number when, in his opinion, such action is justifiable as a measure of humanity. Transportation companies are subject to a fine of \$100 for each alien brought to the United States in excess of the maximum number allowed.

"Based on the immigration experience of the past ten years, the proposed law would not reduce immigration from western Europe, but it would result in a very material reduction of the movement from various countries of southern and eastern Europe. How the various countries of the two sections of Europe referred to would be affected by the law may be seen from the following compilation:

## SOUTHERN AND EASTERN EUROPE

COUNTRY	Number of aliens admissible under proposed law	Average annual immigration, 1903-1912
Austria-Hungary .....	167,195	219,782
Bulgaria .....	5,000	4,691
Servia .....	5,000	
Montenegro .....	5,000	
Greece .....	10,151	20,118
Italy .....	134,426	207,152
Portugal .....	6,696	7,842
Roumania .....	6,592	4,303
Russia .....	173,520	172,581
Spain .....	5,000	3,776
Turkey in Europe .....	5,000	10,832
Turkey in Asia .....	5,973	8,840
Total .....	529,553	659,917

## NORTHERN AND WESTERN EUROPE

Belgium .....	5,000	4,735
Denmark .....	18,230	6,971
France .....	11,836	8,376
Germany .....	250,398	35,139
Netherlands .....	12,014	5,865
Norway .....	23,724	18,339
Sweden .....	66,806	22,877
Switzerland .....	12,506	3,828
United Kingdom .....	257,797	95,826
Total .....	658,311	201,956



"The average annual immigration from Austria-Hungary during the past ten years has been approximately 220,000, but under the bill immigration from that country would be limited to 167,000 annually, at least until the census of 1920 afforded a new basis for computation. Immigration from Italy has averaged 207,000 annually, but future immigration from that country would be limited to about 134,500, while Greece would be limited to 10,000 as compared with an average of about 20,000 in recent years. Apparently immigration from Turkey would be cut down about one-half. Of all the principal sources of southern and eastern European immigration, Russia alone would seem to be little affected, as under the proposed law 173,500 immigrants could be admitted from that country annually, as compared with an average annual immigration of 172,500 during the past ten years.

"On the other hand, western European countries in all probability would not be in the least affected by the proposed law. Germany has furnished an average of 35,000 immigrants in recent years and under the proposed law could send 250,000. The United Kingdom could send about 258,000, but has sent an average of 96,000 in the past ten years. In the cases of France, Belgium, Switzerland, Netherlands, and the Scandinavian countries the margin is not so large, but it is not believed that the law would in any way affect immigration from such countries.

"It seems certain that the proposed law would restrict European immigration along the lines recommended by the Immigration Commission, and restrict it to a greater extent than the literacy test which the Commission recommended as the most feasible single

means of bringing about the desired slowing down in the movement of unskilled laborers from Europe. The effect of the literacy test is largely conjectural, but the method of restriction proposed by Senator Dillingham would confine the influx from any one country within certain definite limits. Moreover, it is pointed out that, by putting a reasonable limit on the annual increase of population of various non-English-speaking nationalities, as proposed by the bill, the possibility of properly assimilating and distributing the incoming hordes would be greatly increased.

"Finally, it is claimed for the new method that it will afford a simple and effective method of increasing or diminishing immigration from time to time, as may be desired, by simply changing the percentage, and that the law can be applied without hardship to the intending immigrant."

Rev. Sidney L. Gulick of the Commission on Relations with Japan, appointed by the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, has developed this percentage plan as a means to the settlement of the perplexing problem of Asiatic immigration.\* He claims that "a *new general* immigration law is needed, which shall apply impartially to all races. We must abandon all differential Asiatic treatment, even as regards immigration. The danger of an overwhelming Oriental immigration can be obviated by a general law allowing a maximum annual immigration from any land of a certain fixed percentage of those from that land already here and naturalized. The valid principle on which such a law would rest is the fact that newcomers from any land enter and become assimilated to our life chiefly through the agency of those from that land who are already here. These know the

languages, customs, and ideals of both nations. Consequently, the larger the number already assimilated, the larger the number of those who can be wisely admitted year by year. The same percentage rate would permit of great differences in actual numbers from different lands."

This plan, as developed by Dr. Gulick, has the undoubted merit of bringing all races under a general scheme of restriction, obviates special race discrimination and is based on citizenship, which in itself has many advantages. If the problem of Asiatic immigration becomes very acute—and there are many indications that the question is by no means settled—it may well be that legislation along these lines may be the solution, rather than the present cumbersome Asiatic regulations in the new immigration law recently passed.

### *Chinese Immigration Laws and Treaties*

During the early part of the decade, 1850-1860, the Pacific Coast States and cities attempted to restrict Chinese immigration, but their regulations were declared unconstitutional. Recourse was then had in the year 1862 to the Federal Government.

The first treaty in which emigration from China to the United States was considered was the Burlingame treaty, proclaimed July 28, 1868. Sections 5 and 6 of that treaty state the position of the United States respecting the rights of Chinese in this country. The inherent and inalienable right of man to change his home and allegiance, and also the mutual advantage of free migration and emigration of their citizens and subjects, respectively, from the one country to the

\* See Appendix B for Doctor Gulick's plan.

other, for the purpose of curiosity or trade, or as permanent residents, were recognized, but "any other than an entirely voluntary emigration" was reprobated. The attitude of the United States as expressed in this treaty was not popular in the Pacific States, however, and they continued their efforts to secure legislation restricting the further immigration of the Chinese.

In 1872 the legislature of California had instructed their Representatives in Congress to urge the making of a new treaty with China, providing for the exclusion of certain Chinese subjects, and continued agitation finally resulted in the enactment of the law of March 3, 1875. Besides prohibiting the importation of women, especially Chinese, for the purpose of prostitution, and the immigration of convicts, the principal provision of the act of 1875 was that the transporting into the United States of residents of China, Japan or any oriental country, without their free and voluntary consent, for the purpose of holding them to a term of service, was to be punished by imprisonment for not more than one year and by a fine not exceeding \$2,000. It further provided that any person attempting to contract in this manner to supply coolie labor to another should be guilty of a felony and imprisoned for not more than one year and pay a fine of not more than \$5,000.

This important topic was being almost continually discussed in Congress and, on November 17, 1880, a treaty somewhat more satisfactory to the Pacific Coast was negotiated, the article relating to the limitation and suspension of Chinese immigration into the United States being as follows:

Whenever in the opinion of the Government of the United

States the coming of Chinese laborers to the United States, or their residence therein, affects or threatens to affect the interests of that country, or to endanger the good order of said country, or of any locality within the territory thereof, the Government of China agrees that the Government of the United States may regulate, limit or suspend such coming or residence, but may not absolutely prohibit it. The limitation or suspension shall be reasonable, and shall apply only to Chinese who may go to the United States as laborers, other classes not being included in the limitations. Legislation taken in regard to Chinese laborers will be of such a character only as is necessary to enforce the regulation, limitation or suspension of immigration, and immigrants shall not be subject to personal maltreatment or abuse.

After the treaty of 1880 was concluded, a bill to execute certain stipulations contained therein was passed by the Senate and House. As this bill went to the President for approval it provided that within ninety days after its passage, and until twenty years thereafter, the coming of Chinese laborers should be suspended. Exception was made to Chinese laborers who were in the United States on November 17, 1880, and those who should come before the act went into effect. Also a complete system of registration, certification and identification was provided. Skilled Chinese laborers were specifically among those excluded and all State or United States courts were denied the right to admit Chinese to citizenship. On April 4, 1882, President Arthur returned the bill with his veto, his principal reason for refusing to sign it being that the passage of an act prohibiting immigration for twenty years was an unreasonable suspension of immigration and, consequently, a breach of the treaty. The features relating to registration he also claimed served no good purpose. Subsequently, a modified bill was passed by Congress, and altho con-



taining some of the provisions objectionable to the President, he approved it on May 6, 1882. This law provided that all immigration of Chinese laborers, skilled or unskilled, should be suspended for a period of ten years.

During the next Congress, to prevent evasions of the law through the "possible interpretations of words 'merchants' and 'travelers,' together with the notorious capabilities of the lower classes of Chinese for perjury," the certificates of exempt classes were made more elaborate and the word "merchant" was defined to exclude hucksters, peddlers, and fishermen. The certificates were made the only evidence admissible to establish a right to reenter. These certificates also had to be verified by the United States diplomatic officer at the port of departure. This act was approved by the President.

In 1886, China of her own accord proposed to prohibit the emigration of her laborers to the United States, and also to prohibit the return of any laborers who had gone back to China. She asked that negotiations be entered into for a treaty embodying such provisions, and one was agreed to and signed by the representatives of the two countries on March 12, 1888.

The treaty as signed provided that Chinese laborers should be excluded for twenty years. No Chinese laborer returning to China was to be allowed to reenter the United States unless he left a wife, child, or parent, or property to the value of \$1,000. To avail himself of this right he had to return within a year. Chinese subjects other than laborers had to obtain certificates of identification from consular representatives of the United States at ports of departure.



As in the earlier treaty, the Chinese already lawfully residing here were granted all the privileges of citizens of the most-favored nations. Finally, the indemnity fund of \$276,619.75, which was asked for losses and injuries suffered by the Chinese in various anti-Chinese riots in the Pacific Coast States was included. Before ratifying it the Senate changed two articles of the treaty. By the first, all Chinese laborers not then in the United States, but who held return certificates under existing laws, were not to be allowed to enter. The other required the possession of the certificate of identification to insure entry.

No ratification of the treaty followed, however, and on receipt of unofficial reports that China had rejected it, Congress passed a bill prohibiting the coming to the United States of Chinese laborers. President Cleveland withheld his approval of the bill for some time, but finally, on the refusal of China to ratify the treaty unless the term of years was made shorter, and other conditions were changed, on October 1, 1888, he signed it. In his message accompanying the approval, President Cleveland justified his action, claiming that China's delay was a breach of the existing treaty, and such a breach as justified Congress in legislatively dealing with the matter.

On May 5, 1892, Senator Dolph, of Oregon, secured the passage of a bill providing that the act of May 6, 1882, should be continued in force for another ten years. All Chinese laborers within the United States were required to secure certificates within one year, and if any one was found without such certificate he was to be liable to deportation.

Shortly after the passage of that act and one of November 3, 1893, China asked for the opening of

negotiations looking to a new treaty. Negotiations were successful, and on December 8, 1894, a treaty was proclaimed which provided for the exclusion of all Chinese laborers for a term of ten years. Those going back to China were allowed to return here, providing they had a wife, child, or parent, or property worth \$1,000 somewhere in the United States. Registration was still required. It practically covered the same grounds as existing legislation, except that the act of October 1, 1888, refusing to Chinese laborers the right to return, was repealed.

After the annexation of Hawaii, on July 7, 1898, Chinese immigration to these islands was declared to be regulated by the laws of the United States. On April 30, 1900, provision was made for the registering of all the Chinese in these islands, and Chinese living there were forbidden to enter continental United States.

### *The Chinese Exclusion Law of 1902*

As the time came for the lapse of the period of exclusion provided by the act of 1892, interest in the exclusion laws again became intense, especially on the Pacific Coast. A Chinese minister, in a letter to the Secretary of State, dated December 10, 1901, brought the matter to the attention of the United States, "urging an adjustment of the questions involved more in harmony with the friendly relations of the two governments." On January 16, 1902, Senator Mitchell, of Oregon, introduced a bill to prohibit the coming of Chinese into the United States, and regulating their residence within her territories. A similar bill was introduced in the House by Mr. Kahn, of California. On March 26, 1902, the Com-

mittee on Foreign Affairs reported Mr. Kahn's bill with a substitute. Several provisions of the bill were stricken out as there was some question as to their constitutionality. The committee proposed excluding all Chinese laborers, but wanted to avoid any discourtesy or annoyance to genuine merchants, students, etc., on the ground that this attitude was necessary in the interests of our commerce with China. It also struck out a clause forbidding the employment of Chinese on ships carrying the American flag on the Pacific Ocean, because of the injury that would accrue to American shipping. Following in the main the committee's recommendations, the bill passed the House. The clause relating to seamen, however, was restored and all laws were extended to the insular possessions.

In the Senate the Mitchell and Kahn bills were considered too severe, and before passing that body they were amended by providing that all existing laws be reenacted, and continue in force until a new treaty should be negotiated. Congress adopted the bill April 28, 1902, and the President approved it the following day.

### *The Chinese Exclusion Law of 1904*

Upon the refusal of China to continue the treaty of 1894 after 1904, on April 27, 1904, Congress again reenacted, extending and continuing without modification, limitation or condition, all laws then in force in so far as they were not inconsistent with treaty obligations.

All legislation was extended to insular possessions, and Chinese immigration from these islands to

continental United States, or from one group to another, was prohibited, altho moving from island to island of the same group was allowed. Certificates of residence were also required in the insular possessions. This law of 1904 is still in force.

### *Legislation Relative to Japanese Laborers*

During 1906 the question of Japanese immigration became acute, and the Pacific States demanded exclusion legislation for the Japanese of the same sort as existed for the Chinese. This was finally settled in the passport provision inserted in the immigration law of February 20, 1907. This provision authorized the President to refuse admission to any aliens making use of passports to the insular possessions, to the Canal Zone, or to any other country than the United States, in order to gain admission to the continental United States. The President, in his proclamation of March 14, 1907, availed himself of this provision, and excluded "Japanese or Korean laborers, skilled or unskilled, who have received passports to go to Mexico, Canada, or Hawaii, and come therefrom." To give this full force, an understanding with Japan was reached that the existing policy of discouraging the emigration of her subjects to this country should be continued. This agreement, by which the two governments cooperate to secure an effective enforcement of the regulation, contemplates that the Japanese Government shall issue passports to continental United States only to such of its subjects as are non-laborers, or are laborers who, in coming to the continent, seek to resume a formerly acquired domicile, to join a parent, wife, or children residing

there, or to assume active control of an already possess interest in a farming enterprise in this country. This agreement, on February 25, 1920, was extended to picture-brides.

### *The California Alien Land-Holding Legislation*

In April, 1913, there was introduced into the California legislature a bill restricting rigidly the holding of land, through either purchase or lease, by aliens, and especially by aliens ineligible to citizenship under the United States naturalization laws. The Japanese Government considered that this was aimed especially at the Japanese, and through Viscount Chinda, the Japanese ambassador, earnest protest was made. President Wilson, in consequence, telegraphed Governor Johnson asking that action be delayed until the Secretary of State, Mr. Bryan, could visit California and lay before the legislature the international aspects of the case, hoping that then a law might be framed which would "leave untouched the international obligations of the United States." After Secretary Bryan's visit, a new bill was framed which, it was thought, recognized fully the provisions of the treaties existing between Japan and the United States. This bill, however, which shortly afterward became law, was not satisfactory to the Japanese Government. The protests stated that the legislation was unfair and discriminatory, inconsistent with treaty provisions, and not in conformity to the spirit and fundamental principles of friendship upon which the relations of the two nations depend. In making these protests, the Japanese Government left the situation as it was, but always with the possibility of taking the question up again diplomatically.\*

\* In Appendix D will be found the text of the 1920 California law.



A similar law even more drastic has been passed in Arizona. In Washington the ownership of lands, excluding mineral lands or those necessary for their development, by aliens who have not declared their intention to become citizens is prohibited, except when acquired by inheritance, by mortgage, or in collecting a debt. In Wisconsin non-resident aliens can not acquire by purchase more than three hundred and twenty acres. Such laws are common in foreign countries, and no one questions the right of a country to make such restrictions.

In order to meet the evasions on the part of Orientals in California of the 1913 Alien Land Law, a new act was passed by the people of the State in 1920. The 1913 law did not prevent American-born Japanese children from acquiring land. The parents in such cases bought the land in the name of the children and acted as guardians. The Japanese also evaded the law through the formation of corporations, 51 per cent. of the stock being held by an American acting as a trustee or dummy for the Japanese. The 1920 law is aimed specifically at such practises.

### *The Administration of the Law*

The general administration of the immigration service has been placed by Congress in the hands of the Commissioner-General of Immigration. His official status is that of a bureau chief in the Department of Labor. Final authority is vested in the Secretary of the Department. The Commissioner-General is represented at the important ports of entry by a Commissioner of Immigration, who has charge of the immigrant station, and a number of inspectors.



The immigrant station in New York is the largest, and may be taken as representative of the entire system of administration and inspection of incoming aliens. The immigrant inspectors, with the health officials, board incoming vessels carrying aliens. The steerage passengers, together with any aliens in the ship's hospital, are transferred by barges to Ellis Island, the sick aliens being sent to the immigrant hospital. The other aliens are first required to pass in single file before two surgeons of the Marine Hospital Service, who simultaneously make a double examination, one into the general physical condition of the alien, the other for signs of trachoma. If there is any doubt about an immigrant's physical or mental condition, he is detained for a more rigid examination. The women are examined separately by matrons. Any pregnant woman is held for a special examination, on the ground that she is liable to become a public charge.

After the physical test, those who successfully pass are arranged according to the order of their names on the ship's manifests, and are then passed in single file before other inspectors for further examination. These inspectors ask the same questions which the immigrants were required to answer in filling out the manifest for the ship's officers, and make note in red ink of any discrepancies in their replies. The immigrant is also required to show the money he has in his possession. Any persons concerning whose status the inspectors have a doubt, are detained. The others are allowed to pass through the gates, where they can buy tickets to their final destination, or receive assistance in finding relatives and friends.

The aliens who have been detained are required

to appear before Boards of Special Inquiry, appointed by the Commissioner-General. They consist of three inspectors, the decisions of two being final. An appeal may be taken from these boards to the Commissioner of the port, from him to the Commissioner-General, and from the Commissioner-General to the Secretary of Labor. The President may, of course, if he wishes to do so, review any case. The proceedings before the Board of Special Inquiry are private, but a complete copy is made of the record. In case of appeal, the record goes to the Commissioner of the port, and the detained immigrant appears before him in person. After the Commissioner renders his decision, the papers in the case are sent to Washington and placed on file.

Immigrants detained because of special inquiries or appeals, are maintained by the Government at the expense of the steamship companies. Those who are to be deported are held until the vessel on which they came is ready for its return voyage. Diseased aliens are treated in the immigrant hospital on Ellis Island until the time for their return to their native countries. In the case of contagious diseases which are not dangerous, or other curable diseases, when the alien intends joining a husband or wife in this country, he or she is allowed to stay in the hospital until a cure is effected.

#### INSPECTION ON LAND BORDERS

On the borders of Canada and Mexico, inspectors are placed on all trains entering the United States, at ferries, and near the principal roads, so that proper inspection may be made to exclude disqualified persons. The procedure followed, including the work of

physicians and of Boards of Inquiry in doubtful cases, is substantially the same as that followed at sea ports, and similar appeals lie to the authorities in Washington.

The law requiring the steamship companies to return debarred immigrants free of charge to the country of embarkation, has led to a careful medical inspection by the companies at the port of embarkation. This examination is usually made by physicians of the home country employed by the steamship companies, or by the ship's doctor. In the most important ports of Italy—Naples, Palermo, and Messina—by an arrangement between the two countries, special examiners of the United States Public Health and Marine Hospital Service have been detailed for the work. Tho their reports are unofficial, the companies, of course, always accept them. In other countries and ports the American consul sometimes recommends an examiner, who is paid by the steamship company. In some instances the company has a preliminary examination made at the place of purchase of the ticket before the would-be emigrant leaves his home. These measures are very helpful in preventing needless expense and often great suffering on the part of the emigrant, and they ought to be everywhere adopted.

#### DIFFICULTIES OF ADMINISTRATION

The enormous difficulties of a just, humane, and still strict enforcement of the law appear when one considers that at the port of New York sometimes thousands of immigrants are admitted in one day; that it is impossible to give much time to each doubtful case; and that the cases themselves are often of extreme complexity, involving judgment of health.

of character, of purpose, of future promise. Often on account of the defects of a single member, the law commands the separation of a family, or the turning back of all its members from what has been to them a land of promise. At times the rigid enforcement of the law means the public disgrace of one who to his family and the world at large has borne hitherto a good reputation, and whose exposure would seem to work only injury to all. Sometimes even the decision to reject what the law requires, seems little else than the death warrant of the applicant.

For officials vested with such responsibilities, the immigration service should demand and pay for men of ability, training, and the highest character.

## XIX

### REMEDIES

#### *Few New Laws Needed*

From the discussion in the preceding chapters it appears that in many directions our immigration laws are satisfactory, and are administered with a satisfactory degree of efficiency. On some few, but extremely important matters, however, further legislation or some changes in the administrative methods seem desirable.

It appears from the investigations of the Immigration Commission, as has been stated in preceding chapters, that the health of our country is fairly well protected along all lines affected by immigration, with the exception of the diseased alien seamen, who, owing to the laxity of our laws regarding the inspection of seamen, frequently bring contagious or loathsome diseases into this country.

There seems little need of further legislation to exclude paupers or those likely to become a public charge. The present rather rigid enforcement of the laws—as shown by the customs regarding certain classes of immigrants, such as the Hindus, who are held likely to become public charges, not so much because they are physically or mentally weak, but because of the race prejudice against them—is likely to prevent any serious danger from this source.

On the other hand, it seems desirable that more effective measures be taken to prevent the further

admissions of immoral persons and of criminals, both those coming as immigrants and as passengers on our steamers, and especially, perhaps, those coming as alien seamen, with the intention of entering the country by desertion. . . . The bill of 1917 undoubtedly did much to correct these evils.

The chapter on congestion in our great cities, and still worse in some of our mining and manufacturing centers, makes clear the need of making better provision for the distribution into the smaller towns, and especially into the agricultural districts, of a much larger proportion of the immigrants.

#### INDUSTRIAL CONDITIONS DEMAND RESTRICTION

Of far greater importance, however, than any legislation along these lines is the necessity of further restriction on account of our present industrial conditions. As has clearly appeared from the preceding chapters, the great increase of immigration of late years has been such that there has been beyond doubt a strong tendency toward the lowering of the standard of living of our industrial laborers. As, according to the so-called Gresham law in the distribution of the monetary circulating medium, a poorer currency tends to drive out a better one, so among the wage-earning classes in any community, as Mr. Mackenzie King has pointed out, a like principle is found. The wage-earners with the lowest standard of living, even tho they are somewhat less efficient, tend strongly to replace the more ambitious workers with higher standards, and employers naturally hire the cheaper workmen, tho, in the long run, the community may be injured.\*

\* This statement regarding industrial conditions holds today. A large influx of aliens under the present economic situation would only bring about many results detrimental to the standard of living in this country.



Such a result is not merely detrimental to our own people, but any lowering of the standard of living in this country could not fail to have a depressing effect in other sections of the world. It is, therefore, extremely desirable that this result be prevented; and the easiest and most effective way of guarding against this evil seems to be the adoption of further restrictions upon immigration, even tho it may not be necessary that such restrictions be maintained for any great length of time. Every stimulus should be given to the forces which tend toward the better assimilation of the immigrant.

### *Recommendations of the Immigration Commission*

As a recent brief summary of the main points which should be considered in the way of further legislation, there are printed here the recommendations of the Immigration Commission:

#### MAJORITY REPORT

#### *Principles of Legislation*

As a result of the investigation, the Commission is unanimously of the opinion that in framing legislation emphasis should be laid upon the following principles:

1. While the American people, as in the past, welcome the opprest of other lands, care should be taken that immigration be such both in quality and quantity as not to make too difficult the process of assimilation.

2. Since the existing law and further special legislation recommended in this report deal with the physically and morally unfit, further general legislation concerning the admission of aliens should be based primarily upon economic or business considerations touching the prosperity and economic well-being of our people.

3. The measure of the rational, healthy development of a country is not the extent of its investment of capital, its output of products, or its exports and imports, unless there is a corresponding economic opportunity afforded to the citizen dependent upon employment for his material, mental, and moral development.

4. The development of business may be brought about by means which lower the standard of living of the wage-earners. A slow expansion of industry which would permit the adaptation and assimilation of the incoming labor supply is preferable to a very rapid industrial expansion which results in the immigration of laborers of low standards and efficiency, who imperil the American standard of wages and conditions of employment.

#### CRIME

The Commission agrees that,

1. To protect the United States more effectively against the immigration of criminal and certain other debarred classes—

(a) Aliens convicted of serious crimes within a period of five years after admission should be deported in accordance with the provisions of House bill 20980, Sixty-first Congress, second session.

(b) Under the provisions of section 39 of the immigration act of February 20, 1907, the President should appoint commissioners to make arrangements with such countries as have adequate police records to supply emigrants with copies of such records, and that thereafter immigrants from such countries should be admitted to the United States only upon the production of proper certificates showing an absence of convictions for excludable crimes.

#### ALIEN SEAMEN

(c) So far as practicable the immigration laws should be so amended as to be made applicable to alien seamen.

#### ALIEN PAUPERS SHOULD BE DEPORTED

(d) Any alien who becomes a public charge within three years after his arrival in this country should be subject to

deportation in the discretion of the Secretary of Commerce and Labor.

#### WHITE SLAVES

2. Sufficient appropriation should be regularly made to enforce vigorously the provisions of the laws previously recommended by the Commission and enacted by Congress regarding the importation of women for immoral purposes.

#### STEERAGE

3. As the new statute relative to steerage conditions took effect so recently as January 1, 1909, and as the most modern steerage fully complies with all that is demanded under the law, the Commission's only recommendation in this connection is that a statute be immediately enacted providing for the placing of government officials, both men and women, on vessels carrying third-class or steerage passengers for the enforcement of the law and the protection of the immigrant. The system inaugurated by the Commission of sending investigators in the steerage in the guise of immigrants should be continued at intervals by the Bureau of Immigration.

#### BOARDS OF SPECIAL INQUIRY—ASSISTANT-SECRETARY OF COMMERCE AND LABOR

4. To strengthen the certainty of just and humane decisions of doubtful cases at ports of entry it is recommended—

That section 25 of the immigration act of 1907 be amended to provide that boards of special inquiry should be appointed by the Secretary of Commerce and Labor, and that they should be composed of men whose ability and training qualify them for the performance of judicial functions; that the provisions compelling their hearings to be separate and apart from the public should be repealed, and that the office of an additional Assistant Secretary of Commerce and Labor to assist in reviewing such appeals be created.

5. To protect the immigrant against exploitation; to discourage sending savings abroad; to encourage permanent residence and naturalization; and to secure better distribution of alien immigrants throughout the country—

## PROTECTION OF IMMIGRANT

(a) The States should enact laws strictly regulating immigrant banks.

(b) Proper State legislation should be enacted for the regulation of employment agencies.

(c) Since numerous aliens make it their business to keep immigrants from influences that may tend toward their assimilation and naturalization as American citizens with the purpose of using their funds, of encouraging investment of their savings abroad, and their return to their home land, aliens who attempt to persuade immigrants not to become American citizens should be made subject to deportation.

## DISTRIBUTION

(d) Since the distribution of the thrifty immigrant to sections of the country where he may secure a permanent residence to the best advantage, and especially where he may invest his savings in farms or engage in agricultural pursuits, is most desirable, the Division of Information in the Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization should be so conducted as to cooperate with States desiring immigrant settlers; and information concerning the opportunities for settlement should be brought to the attention of immigrants in industrial centers who have been here for some time and who might be thus induced to invest their savings in this country and become permanent agricultural settlers. The division might also secure and furnish to all laborers alike information showing opportunities for permanent employment in various sections of the country, together with the economic conditions in such places.

6. One of the provisions of section 2 of the act of 1907 reads as follows:

## AMENDMENT TO CONTRACT LABOR LAW

*And provided further,* That skilled labor may be imported if labor of like kind unemployed can not be found in this country.

Instances occasionally arise, especially in the establishment of new industries in the United States, where labor of the kind desired, unemployed, can not be found in this country

and it becomes necessary to import such labor. Under the law the Secretary of Commerce and Labor has no authority to determine the questions of the necessity for importing such labor in advance of the importation, and it is recommended that an amendment to the law be adopted by adding to the clause cited above a provision to the effect that the question of the necessity of importing such skilled labor in any particular instance may be determined by the Secretary of Commerce and Labor upon the application of any person interested prior to any action in that direction by such person; such determination by the Secretary of Commerce and Labor to be reached after a full hearing and an investigation into the facts of the case.

#### ORIENTAL IMMIGRATION

7. The general policy adopted by Congress in 1882 of excluding Chinese laborers should be continued.

The question of Japanese and Korean immigration should be permitted to stand without further legislation so long as the present method of restriction proves to be effective.

An understanding should be reached with the British Government whereby East Indian laborers would be effectively prevented from coming to the United States.

#### PRINCIPLES OF RESTRICTION

8. The investigations of the Commission show an oversupply of unskilled labor in basic industries to an extent which indicates an oversupply of unskilled labor in the industries of the country as a whole, a condition which demands legislation restricting the further admission of such unskilled labor.

It is desirable in making the restriction that—

(a) A sufficient number be debarred to produce a marked effect upon the present supply of unskilled labor.

(b) As far as possible, the aliens excluded should be those who come to this country with no intention to become American citizens or even to maintain a permanent residence here, but merely to save enough, by the adoption, if necessary, of low standards of living, to return permanently to their home country. Such persons are usually men unaccompanied by wives or children.

(c) As far as possible the aliens excluded should also be those who, by reason of their personal qualities or habits, would least readily be assimilated or would make the least desirable citizens.

#### METHODS OF RESTRICTION

The following methods of restricting immigration have been suggested:

(a) The exclusion of those unable to read or write in some language.

(b) The limitation of the number of each race arriving each year to a certain percentage of the average of that race arriving during a given period of years.

(c) The exclusion of unskilled laborers unaccompanied by wives or families.

(d) The limitation of the number of immigrants arriving annually at any port.

(e) The material increase in the amount of money required to be in the possession of the immigrant at the port of arrival.

(f) The material increase of the head tax.

(g) The levy of the head tax so as to make a marked discrimination in favor of men with families.

All these methods would be effective in one way or another in securing restrictions in a greater or less degree. A majority of the Commission favor the reading and writing test as the most feasible single method of restricting undesirable immigration.

The Commission as a whole recommends restriction as demanded by *economic*, *moral*, and *social* considerations, furnishes in its report reasons for such restriction, and points out methods by which Congress can attain the desired result if its judgment coincides with that of the Commission.

#### VIEWS OF THE MINORITY

I recognize the great value of the work of the Immigration Commission and unite in the conclusions, so far as they are based on the reports, whether they coincide with my personal and previously formed opinions or not.

A slowing down of the present rate of the immigration of unskilled labor is justified by the report, and according to the



report, restriction should be limited to unmarried male aliens or married aliens unaccompanied by their wives and families. The reports show that in the main the present immigrants are not criminal, pauper, insane, or seekers of charity in so great a degree as their predecessors. The educational test proposed is a selective test for which no logical argument can be based on the report. As the report of the Commission is finally adopted, within a half hour of the time when, under the law, it must be filed, there is no time for the preparation of an elaborate dissent. I sincerely regret that I can not fully agree with the remainder of the Commission, and if time permitted I would point out the many excellent provisions contained in the report, some of my own suggestion. My main ground of dissent is the specific recommendation by the majority of the educational test, tho there are other instances in which it has not my full approval.

WILLIAM S. BENNET.

### *Discussion of Proposed Legislation*

Few people will question the general principles laid down by the Immigration Commission as a basis for further legislation.

#### RELIGIOUS AND POLITICAL REFUGEES

The chief objection raised at the present time against further restrictive measures has come from the Jews, who fear that any restrictive measure will tend to keep many of their people, especially those in Russia, under conditions of political and religious oppression. The answer to such an objection, of course, is found in the first principle laid down, which makes it clear that, in the judgment of the Commission, as well as of most other enlightened citizens, the United States should remain in the future as in the past, a haven of refuge for the oppressed, whether such oppression be political or religious. Any re-

strictive measure should contain a provision making an exception of such cases.

On the other hand, we must not overlook the fact that the administration of such an exception to a restrictive measure would prove extremely difficult in practise. There are many extremists in religion and politics who might easily feel themselves oppressed, even tho the great majority of citizens believe that their activities and beliefs are detrimental to the public welfare. We have in our own country, in the case of the Mormons, and of certain extreme believers in Christian Science, not to mention others, examples of people of this type. But, whatever the difficulties the administration might encounter, we clearly ought not to close our doors against those whom the common opinion of the world would consider really the subjects of oppression.

#### THE DELINQUENTS

The recommendations of the Immigration Commission to restrict more carefully the immigration of criminals, paupers, or the immoral, need practically no comment. Public opinion seems to be absolutely convinced regarding the desirability of the exclusion of these persons, and the measures suggested by the Immigration Commission having, the most of them, become law, the other suggestions are not likely to meet with serious opposition.

#### BOARDS OF SPECIAL INQUIRY

It is very desirable that the doubtful cases which are found at our ports of entry be treated with great consideration. Thousands of immigrants every year come before the Boards of Special Inquiry, the de-

cisions of which must either, on the one hand, bring great disappointment to the immigrant, often separation of families, frequently loss of property, or even physical suffering, or, on the other hand, must result in the admission into this country of people whose influence is likely to be seriously detrimental to its welfare. In the decision of crucial cases touching thus the deepest sentiments of humanity, all prejudice should be swept aside and the law should be administered humanely, tho firmly. To bring about these results, the Government ought to provide much more liberally than it does at present for the appointment of inspectors of the highest training and of rare personal qualities, even tho the expense be very considerably heightened, both on account of an increase in salaries and in the number of Boards of Inquiry, so that more time might be given to individual cases.

#### ANOTHER ASSISTANT-SECRETARY OF COMMERCE AND LABOR

Furthermore, the recommendation of the Commission that an additional Secretary of Commerce and Labor be appointed, to assist in reviewing appeals from the Boards of Inquiry, was very important when made. Since that date the new Department of Labor has been created, and to it has been assigned the Bureau of Immigration. Tho the form of the recommendation would be changed, it is still desirable that in the department at Washington a high official be designated, practically all of whose time can be devoted to a careful consideration of appealed immigration cases. When one considers that from the immigrants themselves, through the head tax, all the money required for these reforms, and much more, is collected, there

ought to be little hesitancy on the part of Congress in making sufficient provision.

#### EXPLOITATION AND ASSIMILATION

Emphasis also should be laid upon the recommendations which are intended to prevent the exploitation of immigrants, and to encourage the permanent residence and naturalization of those immigrants who are admitted. We wish those of the best quality, in order that they may make the best citizens, and it is desirable that those who come here with that intent should be prepared as thoroughly as possible for the new duties of citizenship.

Especial emphasis should be laid upon the measures that are now taken by many private associations, as well as by the Division of Information of the Bureau of Immigration, to further the process of assimilation of the immigrant. Everything that can be done in the way of assisting immigrants of the better type to invest their savings in the rural districts, and thus to relieve the overcrowded conditions of cities, should be done.

The Government might well, also, cooperate in every possible way with the educational facilities afforded by the different States, and by private associations that are now conducting evening schools for the teaching of American history, American government, the duties of citizens and similar subjects as well as the English language and studies calculated to enable the immigrant more easily to earn a livelihood. The Government might, also, manifest its sympathy for the immigrants in the severe conditions which they often meet on their first arrival in this country, by more direct care in protecting them against board-

ing-house keepers, hackmen, runners, and others who try to defraud them on their arrival in this country. Already something in this direction is done. The work should be extended as far as is practicable. Too much emphasis can hardly be laid upon receiving the immigrant in a spirit of sympathy and helpfulness which will tend to strengthen his sense of civic and social obligation.

#### ORIENTAL IMMIGRATION

In the chapter on Oriental Immigration the discussion was perhaps made complete enough so that no further argument is necessary to justify the Government in continuing our present policy of the restriction of oriental immigration, tho the form of selection may well be modified, so as not to wound the national susceptibilities of any people. The recommendation of Mr. Straus, when Secretary of Commerce and Labor, that all be admitted "except laborers" is worthy of consideration.

Much more effort should be made by thoughtful individuals, as well as by the Government, to understand the true nature of the racial problem in immigration and to set it forth in its true light. When the problem is properly understood, it will be seen that a restriction of immigration on racial grounds is no cause for hostile or even for aggrieved feeling on the part of the races excluded. Such a policy of exclusion carries an implication of inferiority no more than one of superiority. It merely recognizes a difference in races and a lack of readiness to assimilate. There is no real and complete amalgamation of races without intermarriage. Races that do not readily intermarry seldom dwell together in amity, unless one of them



readily assumes the position of a subject or a servile caste. Such a caste is not desirable in a free country. A race, like the Japanese, that will not be servile and yet will not mix by intermarriage is sure to create difficulty in social life. This ought not to be the case, perhaps, but with human nature as it is, the experience of the world seems to justify the statement. Witness for one example the experiences of the Jews in nearly all countries from the days of the Middle Ages down. And no one who knows the Jews considers them inferior to any other race, either physically or mentally, morally or religiously. In such countries as Russia and Austria it is frankly said that the hostility to the Jews is felt because of their mental superiority, which enables them to exploit the weaker natives. Similar control of the Chinese by the Dutch in Java is for the same reason—to protect the weak and less able Malay native from exploitation by the abler Chinese.

This country wants no other race problem. The negro problem is enough. Many fear that a Jewish problem threatens for a different reason. They wish to take no risks of a Chinese or Japanese or Hindu racial problem. The feeling is rather one of fear and prudence than of hostility or contempt.

#### CONTRACT LABOR LAW

Of greater importance, however, than any of these questions is that of protecting our industrial conditions. It seems probable that in some cases our government has emphasized too strongly our contract labor law, so that individuals whose service in special lines of employment would be distinctly beneficial to the country, have been excluded. Moreover, if it were not for the danger of importing men specifically as



strike-breakers, or under such conditions that they would tend to retard the improvement of the conditions of our skilled workers and the steady elevation of the standards of living among such classes, it would seem desirable that the immigrants coming to this country should arrive with some previous knowledge of the occupations which they are to enter; and their coming under contract, instead of being a detriment, would be a benefit to all parties concerned. Beyond doubt, there are very many evasions at the present time of the spirit of our contract labor law. If it were possible so to amend the law as to prevent our immigrants from being used as a means of oppressing American wage-earners, a decided modification of this law would be advisable.

It is certainly desirable that some change be made so that the Secretary of Labor might determine in advance the exceptions to the law as it now stands; and it seems proper that some extension in the admitted classes be made, while maintaining strictly the principle of preventing importation which could prove detrimental to wage-earners. The plan proposed in the Dillingham bill would probably prove satisfactory and would not lead to abuse.

#### GENERAL RESTRICTIONS

In discussing the question of the further general restriction of immigration, emphasis should be placed upon the principles laid down by the Immigration Commission concerning the demand for labor. The point should be again recalled that a demand for labor is no sign that the welfare of the country would be promoted by additional laborers. As the Commission has well said, the measure of the wise development of

a country is to a very great extent dependent upon the economic opportunity afforded to the wage-earning citizen for his material, mental and moral development, and this opportunity is dependent to a great extent upon a progressive improvement in his standard of living. It is undoubtedly true that an increase in wages so great that our home industries could not meet the competition of foreign countries might easily result in the injury of the wage-earners. Such a redistribution of wealth, therefore, as would probably be brought about from a restriction of immigration can be brought about only within the limits made possible on account of foreign competition, or by concerted action on the part of all competing countries.

Within these limits, however, the principle may be laid down that the most desirable progress of a country is very closely bound up with the progress of its wage-earning classes, and that any influence which tends toward the lowering of their standard of living must be detrimental.

The preceding chapters indicate, beyond possibility of contradiction, that tendencies toward lowering the American standard of living are at work at the present time in this country through our large immigration, and that, therefore, it is desirable that by some wisely effective method we restrict such immigration.

#### ASSIMILATION AND DISTRIBUTION

This in no way contradicts the belief on the part of many that every effort should be made to promote assimilation of the immigrants and the distribution of immigrants from our overcrowded industrial centers to the rural districts. Both classes of activities

are necessary, if we are to promote our best interests. When we have finally thoroughly organized our assimilative and distributive relief measures, it is possible that no further restrictive measures will be needed; but for the time being, at any rate, there is no doubt as to their necessity.

#### LITERACY TEST

Regarding specific measures of restriction little need be said. A majority of the Immigration Commission favored the reading and writing test as the "most feasible single method" of restricting undesirable immigration. In three instances this bill passed both houses, altho vetoed by Presidents Cleveland, Taft, and Wilson. It has now finally been passed by Congress over the veto of President Wilson and is part of our Immigration law. The literacy test on the whole seems more generally acceptable than any other test. Very thorough consideration of the whole subject would indicate that altho this law may in many individual instances work considerable hardship it will not be more likely to work hardship than any other restrictive measure. Any general legislation is certain in individual cases to result in hardship. It is thought also that this test will be felt mainly by those immigrants who come to America without wives or families and with the intention of remaining here only a short time. This, in fact, was the chief reason for adopting this test. Now that the law is actually in force, actual information on the workings of the law should be forthcoming within a very short time. A thorough discussion of the facts of this law is to be found in the chapter entitled "The Immigration Law of 1917."

## DISCRIMINATING HEAD TAX

The suggestion made by the Immigration Commission that a discriminating head tax might be levied in favor of men accompanied by their families, was intended to place a check chiefly upon those persons who come here with the intention of remaining but a short length of time, then returning to their home countries to invest their savings. This test, again, would doubtless result in many individual cases in the exclusion of thrifty men who have come here to make a home with the intention of bringing their families within two or three years. But here, again, this hardship might well be offset by the greater benefit of the exclusion of the classes that from the industrial viewpoint alone are the less desirable.

## RESTRICTION TO FIXT NUMBER

The suggestion made that it might be possible to limit the "number of each race arriving each year to a certain percentage of the average of that race arriving during a given period of years," has a certain element of apparent fairness in it which makes it of interest. If for the time being we overlook the restriction placed upon the immigration of the oriental races, it would seem that all other races are presumably coming into this country in about their normal proportions, and any restriction which would apply closely to them by cutting off, say, 25 per cent. of the average number that has arrived annually during the last ten years, would be perfectly just. Some have thought, also, that a law passed in this form, by making no discrimination in name against any race, would meet the objections of the Chinese

to the present Chinese Exclusion Act. The Chinese Government now does not care particularly to have its laboring classes come to this country, but it does object to having its citizens selected by name, when other nations are not so mentioned, inasmuch as it seems to imply a degree of undesirability on the part of members of that race greater than that which applies to others. Inasmuch, however, as the Chinese and Japanese have been, within the last few years, positively discriminated against, such a law if passed now would simply continue that discrimination, with, however, the removal of the discrimination by name.

There is certainly much to be said in favor of such a measure, as a positive measure of restriction. The Government could determine with almost absolute accuracy just the number of people that would come in. On the face of it it makes no discrimination against any particular race. It would apparently continue, relatively speaking, the normal proportion of immigrants from the different countries. As soon as the number were positively known in advance, the steamship companies would doubtless readjust their sailings and accommodations in such a way as to prevent serious hardship, as at first thought might seem to be brought upon them by the passage of such a law.

On the other hand, there is nothing in this law which would tend to make a selection in the character or quality of the immigrants, such as seems to be in part at least brought about by either the literacy test or a test of the discriminating head tax. Discrimination in this respect is of exceedingly great importance.

The new measure proposed in the Dillingham bill limits the number of immigrants from any country

entering in any one year to 10 per cent. of the people from that country found in the country at the time of the preceding census enumeration. This has the merits of the measure last discust. It will be seen from the figures already given that it would also exclude especially those classes whose competition with our laborers is particularly to be feared as lowering the standard of living. It is on that account especially to be commended. It would quite possibly reach the result, even more effectively, if combined with the literacy test.

Diplomatic means should be employed to secure treaties with several countries to ensure the better exclusion of criminals and those morally undesirable, as well as to insure reciprocal action and reciprocal goodwill from those countries that, on racial grounds or for other reasons, seem to require special action.



## XX

### THE IMMIGRATION LAW OF 1917\*

On February 1, 1917, the House of Representatives passed the Burnett immigration bill over the veto of President Wilson, and four days later it became a law through like action on the part of the Senate, thus ending a struggle for the restriction of immigration which had continued with greater or less intensity for more than twenty years. President Cleveland vetoed a general immigration bill in 1897, chiefly because it proposed the exclusion of aliens over sixteen years of age who were unable to read and write. A similar bill passed the Senate in 1898, but was refused consideration in the House by a majority of two. When the bill which became the Immigration Act of 1903, was under consideration, the House favored a reading test, but it was eliminated in the Senate. When the law of 1907 was enacted the Senate inserted the test, but the House proposed that the question of restricting immigration be postponed until the whole subject could be thoroughly investigated. As a result, the reading test was dropt from the bill and the Immigration Commission was created to make the investigation.

The commission, after working more than three years, recommended that immigration be restricted largely on the ground that the unrestricted influx of

\* Written by W. W. Husband, Former Secretary of the United States Immigration Commission, now Commissioner General of Immigration for the United States.

Southern and Eastern Europeans had produced an over-supply of unskilled labor, and suggested the reading and writing test as the "most feasible single method" of bringing about the desired restriction. Congress quickly accepted the Commission's view of the situation with the result that a long existing and frequently proclaimed sentiment in favor of immigration restriction developed into a fixed purpose to enact legislation to that end, with the reading test as the chosen method. Senator Dillingham, who was chairman of the Commission, and Representative Burnett, who was one of its members on the part of the House of Representatives, introduced what became known as the Dillingham-Burnett bill, which passed both houses by overwhelming majorities, but was vetoed by President Taft because it contained the reading test. The Senate promptly passed the bill over the President's veto by a vote of 72 to 18, but the vote in the House—213 to 114—lacked by five votes the two-thirds necessary to override the executive's disapproval. The bill was reintroduced in the following Congress in substantially the same form as before and passed the House by 252 to 126, and the Senate by 50 to 7, but President Wilson vetoed it and the House failed to overcome the veto by a narrow margin of four votes less than the required two-thirds, which action ended consideration of the matter, for the House having acted the veto message did not come before the Senate.

Undaunted by two defeats, Mr. Burnett again presented the bill at the next session of Congress and both houses again passed it by large majorities, and President Wilson again vetoed the measure. Congress, however, had become tired of executive interference in legislation which it had time and again so strongly

avored, and the House with little debate passed the bill over the President's veto by a vote of 287 to 106, or 25 more than the required two-thirds, and the Senate took like action by a vote of 62 to 19.

### THE READING TEST

Altho only one of several important, or even radical features of the new law, the literacy test, or strictly speaking the reading test, is the best known and undoubtedly the most important and far-reaching provision of the measure. The text of the test, with its various modifying clauses, is as follows:

That after three months from the passage of this Act, in addition to the aliens who are by law now excluded from admission into the United States, the following persons shall also be excluded from admission thereto, to wit:

All aliens over sixteen years of age, physically capable of reading, who can not read the English language, or some other language or dialect, including Hebrew or Yiddish: *Provided*, That any admissible alien, or any alien heretofore or hereafter legally admitted, or any citizen of the United States, may bring in or send for his father or grandfather over fifty-five years of age, his wife, his mother, his grandmother, or his unmarried or widowed daughter, if otherwise admissible, whether such relative can read or not; and such relative shall be permitted to enter. That for the purpose of ascertaining whether aliens can read, the immigrant inspectors shall be furnished with slips of uniform size, prepared under the direction of the Secretary of Labor, each containing not less than thirty nor more than forty words in ordinary use, printed in plainly legible type in some one of the various languages or dialects of immigrants. Each alien may designate the particular language or dialect in which he desires the examination to be made, and shall be required to read the words printed on the slip in such language or dialect. That the following classes of persons shall be exempt

from the operation of the illiteracy test, to wit: All aliens who shall prove to the satisfaction of the proper immigration officer or to the Secretary of Labor that they are seeking admission to the United States to avoid religious persecution in the country of their last permanent residence, whether such persecution be evidenced by overt acts or by laws or governmental regulations that discriminate against the alien or the race to which he belongs because of his religious faith; all aliens who have been lawfully admitted to the United States and who have resided therein continuously for five years and who return to the United States within six months from the date of their departure therefrom; all aliens in transit through the United States; all aliens who have been lawfully admitted to the United States and who later shall go in transit from one part of the United States to another through foreign contiguous territory.

The enactment above quoted needs little explanation. It will be observed that its purpose is to exclude from the United States all aliens over sixteen years of age who can not pass a simple reading test, but care has been taken to prevent the separation of families, at least so far as children, dependent women and elderly persons are concerned. A concession is made in favor of the admission to the country of aliens who are seeking asylum from religious persecution, and from the language of the law in that respect it is very clear that Russian and Roumanian Jews are the chief intended beneficiaries, altho, of course, there are some other peoples like the Christians of Turkey who might also seek to take advantage of the exception. Still another exception permits illiterate aliens who have resided in the United States continuously for five years to make temporary visits abroad without foregoing their right to return.

Compared to the reading tests proposed in previous bills the provision as finally enacted into law is more

stringent in some respects and more lenient in others. In earlier bills, for example, immigrants from Canada, Newfoundland, Mexico, or Cuba were not required to meet the test, but there are no such exceptions in the new law. On the other hand the bill which President Taft vetoed made no provision for letting down the bars to persons fleeing from religious persecution, and the first bill presented to President Wilson required that aliens, claiming exemption from the reading test on that account, must prove conclusively that they came to this country solely to escape such persecution, but the corresponding provision in the present act, as already shown, is far more liberal in that respect. The recent overturn of the Russian monarchy, however, and the subsequent edict of the provisional government granting entire religious freedom in Russia has seemingly made the exception inoperative, so far as Jewish immigrants from that country are concerned, and accordingly the law in that particular regard became practically obsolete even before it went into effect.

#### EFFECT ON IMMIGRATION

In the present situation it is practically impossible to make anything like a satisfactory forecast of the probable effect of the reading test on the future tide of immigration. Indeed, such a forecast would have been extremely difficult even in normal times, and now that war has become an unknown, but certainly a most important factor in the problem, any reckoning concerning what may happen must of necessity be largely if not purely speculative. One great difficulty in this regard lies in the fact that the reading test is qualitative and fixes no numerical limit to immigration. It will no doubt keep out the utterly illiterate, but the test



is so simple that almost anyone could fit himself to meet it in a short time if he so desired. Besides, there is always the possibility that if those who can not read are denied admission, those who can read will come in their stead, especially if the population pressure at home is strong and the inducements to immigration in this country sufficiently alluring. Moreover the number who may be entitled to admission under the various exceptions to the test is an unknown quantity and our immigration statistics afford no satisfactory basis for calculations in that respect. An admissible alien, for example, may bring in an illiterate father or grandfather who is more than fifty-five years of age, or he may bring in his wife, his mother, his grandmother, or his unmarried or widowed daughters without reference to their age or ability to read, but available records give no hint of the numerical importance of these various classes.

As a matter of fact about the only available data which shed any light on the question are found in the Bureau of Immigration records which show the number of illiterate aliens of the various races, fourteen years of age and over, who can read but can not write, and the number who can neither read nor write. Obviously the latter but not the former are excluded by the law, which, as already stated, requires an examination only in reading. The following table shows the number of totally illiterate aliens fourteen years of age and over who were admitted to the country during the year ending June 30, 1914, which was the last year of immigration undisturbed by war, compared with the total influx of the various races during the same year :



## ILLITERACY AMONG IMMIGRANTS ADMITTED TO THE UNITED STATES DURING THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1914, BY RACE

RACE	Total immi- gration	Number of illiterates 14 years of age and over	Per cent. of illit- erates
African (black) .....	8,447	1,783	21.1
Armenian .....	7,785	2,116	27.2
Bohemian and Moravian.....	9,928	98	1.0
Bulgarian, Servian and Montenegrin	15,084	3,233	21.8
Chinese .....	2,854	170	7.2
Croatian and Slovenian.....	37,284	7,856	21.1
Cuban .....	8,539	43	1.4
Dalmatian, Bosnian and Herzegovinian	5,149	2,362	45.9
Dutch and Flemish.....	12,566	206	1.6
East Indian .....	172	23	13.4
English .....	51,746	269	0.5
Finnish .....	12,805	82	0.6
French .....	18,166	1,100	6.1
German .....	79,871	2,891	3.6
Greek .....	45,881	8,906	19.4
Hebrew .....	188,051	21,204	15.4
Irish .....	33,898	841	1.0
Italian (North) .....	44,802	2,467	5.5
Italian (South) .....	251,612	103,548	41.2
Japanese .....	8,941	1,422	15.9
Korean.....	152	24	15.8
Lithuanian .....	21,584	9,001	41.7
Magyar .....	44,538	3,369	7.6
Mexican .....	13,089	3,857	25.6
Polish .....	122,657	32,052	26.1
Portuguese .....	9,647	4,780	49.5
Roumanian .....	24,070	7,566	31.4
Russian .....	44,957	14,825	33.0
Ruthenian (Russniak) .....	36,727	13,122	35.7
Scandinavian .....	36,053	143	0.4
Scotch .....	18,997	76	0.4
Slovak .....	25,819	2,432	9.4
Spanish .....	11,064	1,837	16.6
Spanish-American .....	1,544	17	1.1
Syrian .....	9,023	3,949	43.8
Turkish .....	2,693	1,687	62.6
Welsh .....	2,558	17	0.7
West Indian (except Cuban).....	1,396	34	2.4
Other peoples .....	3,831	1,689	44.1
Total .....	1,218,480	260,152	21.4

It should be explained that the figures, or more especially the per cents., in the foregoing table are not a fair measure of the relative illiteracy of the various races, for the reason that in some cases there are comparatively few persons under fourteen years of age among the immigrants, while in other cases they are comparatively numerous. To illustrate, only 4 per cent. of the Greeks, 7 per cent. of the Ruthenians, and 9 per cent. of the Croatians and Slovenians, are under

fourteen years of age, as compared with 16 per cent. among the English, 17 per cent. among the Germans, and 22 per cent. among the Hebrews. When the per cent. of illiterates is based on the total immigration of a race, as is the case in this table, obviously the effect is to show an unduly large proportion of illiterates among races accompanied by a small number of children, as in the first three cases, while the opposite is true of races which bring a good many children, as among the English, Germans and Hebrews.

In some cases the percentage of illiterates is also more or less affected by the varying proportion of women among the immigrants of the different races, but taking the races as a whole the proportion of those who could neither read nor write was practically the same in both sexes in the year under consideration.

But inasmuch as the purpose of the table is to show what proportion of the total immigration might be affected by the reading test, rather than to show the relative illiteracy of the races, the discrepancies alluded to are of no particular importance in this instance. Another factor, which lessens any prophetic value the table may have, is that it shows the number of illiterates who are fourteen years of age and over, while the reading provision in the new law applies only to those over sixteen. On the whole, therefore, the table is chiefly valuable as an approximate indication of the effect the reading test might have on an immigration movement of the sort that prevailed for twenty-five years before the outbreak of the great war, because the influx in 1914 was fairly typical of the whole period.

The table shows very clearly that the application of the test in the year under consideration would have quite largely cut down the influx from Southern and

Eastern Europe and Turkey in Asia without appreciably affecting the movement from the Northern and Western countries. At least this is plain theoretically and no doubt it would have produced that result in actual practise as well.

A division of the immigration of 1914 into groups made up of the races coming from Southern and Eastern Europe and Asiatic Turkey, and those coming from Northern and Western Europe, with the number and proportion of illiterates in each group, will clearly illustrate this point:

ILLITERACY AMONG IMMIGRANTS ADMITTED TO THE UNITED STATES DURING THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1914,  
BY RACIAL GROUPS

RACIAL GROUPS	Total immigration	Number of illiterates 14 years of age and over	Per cent. of illiterates
Southern and Eastern Europeans (a) .	921,160	246,542	26.8
Northern and Western Europeans (b)	253,855	5,043	2.0
All others .....	43,065	8,567	19.9

(a) Includes—Armenian, Bohemian and Moravian, Bulgarian, Servian and Montenegrin, Croatian and Slovenian, Dalmatian, Bosnian and Herzegovinian, Finnish, Greek, Hebrew, North and South Italian, Lithuanian, Magyar, Polish, Portuguese, Roumanian, Russian, Ruthenian, Slovak, Spanish, Syrian, Turkish.

(b) Includes—Dutch and Flemish, English, French, German, Irish, Scandinavian, Scotch, Welsh.

The geographical distribution of the races in the foregoing table is not strictly accurate in all cases, the chief discrepancies being found among the Germans and French. Both of these races are listed among Northern and Western Europeans, but as a matter of fact a considerable majority of the Germans came from Austria-Hungary and Russia rather than from Germany, and more than 10,000 of the French were French-Canadians, while fewer than 6,000 came from France. But these exceptions would have little influence on the situation as a whole, and the table shows as well as can be shown the comparative effect the reading test would have had on the immigration of

the racial groups concerned. With the qualifications before noted, it is also indicative of the probable effect the test will have on future immigration, which, as already stated, would be to check the influx from Southern and Eastern Europe and Turkey without diminishing the movement from the rest of Europe. There is reason to believe, however, that in some of the countries named the new law will stimulate primary education, so as to enable those desiring to go to America to pass the simple test.

#### EXCLUSION OF ASIATICS

Altho the reading test is the most discust feature of the new law its effect in the long run may be of less moment than the effect of the so-called latitude and longitude clause of the law, which awkwardly, but doubtless effectually, closes the door against pretty much all Asiatic immigration not already barred by the Chinese Exclusion Law and Treaty and the "gentlemen's agreement" with Japan. What is perhaps of equal importance, it provides for the exclusion of the Japanese in the event that the gentlemen's agreement should become inoperative. The clause referred to denies admission into the United States to the following class of aliens:

Unless otherwise provided for by existing treaties, persons who are natives of islands not possessed by the United States adjacent to the Continent of Asia, situate south of the twentieth parallel of latitude north, west of the one hundred and sixtieth meridian of longitude east from Greenwich, and north of the tenth parallel of latitude south, or who are natives of any country, province, or dependency situate on the Continent of Asia west of the one hundred and tenth meridian of longitude east from Greenwich and east of the fiftieth meridian of longitude east from Greenwich and south of the fiftieth parallel of latitude north, except that portion of said

territory situate between the fiftieth and the sixty-fourth meridians of longitude east from Greenwich and the twenty-fourth and thirty-eighth parallels of latitude north, and no alien now in any way excluded from, or prevented from entering, the United States shall be admitted to the United States. The provision next foregoing, however, shall not apply to persons of the following status or occupations: Government officers, ministers or religious teachers, missionaries, lawyers, physicians, chemists, civil engineers, teachers, students, authors, artists, merchants, and travelers for curiosity or pleasure, nor to their legal wives or their children under sixteen years of age who shall accompany them or who subsequently may apply for admission to the United States, but such persons or their legal wives or foreign-born children who fail to maintain in the United States a status or occupation placing them within the excepted classes shall be deemed to be in the United States contrary to law, and shall be subject to deportation as provided in section nineteen of this Act."

Briefly stated the restricted area described in the provision quoted includes India, Siam, Indo-China, Afghanistan, parts of Russian Turkestan and Arabia on the continent of Asia, and New Guinea, Borneo, Sumatra, and Java as well as many lesser islands. The Philippines and Guam, and a large part of China, are also within the described area, but of course the islands named are "possessed by the United States" and accordingly are not affected, while the people of China are not under the ban because immigrants from that country are already debarred, in a technical sense by treaty, altho practically this is accomplished under the Chinese Exclusion Law \*

Japan and her possessions are entirely omitted from

\* The Immigration Treaty of 1880 with China, which is still in force, provides in part as follows: "Whenever in the opinion of the Government of the United States, the coming of Chinese laborers to the United States, or their residence therein, affects or threatens to affect the interests of that country, or to endanger the good order of the said country or of any locality within the territory thereof, the Government of China agrees that the Government of the United States may regulate, limit, or suspend such coming or residence, but may not absolutely prohibit it."



the restricted area, and indeed it was the objection of the Japanese Government to other proposed methods of excluding Asiatics that led to the adoption of the latitude and longitude plan. Earlier drafts of the Burnett bill, and in fact every general immigration bill that has been considered by Congress since about 1911, contained a clause excluding persons not eligible to become citizens of the United States through naturalization, unless such persons were already excluded by some kind of treaty or agreement. At one stage the Hindus also appeared as a separate excluded class because it was feared that they might not be debarred under the naturalization provision. The Japanese are not eligible to naturalization, that privilege being granted only to white persons and negroes, but the proposed law would not have applied to them as long as the gentlemen's agreement before referred to remained in force. The Japanese Government, however, made formal objection to the proposal, probably because of resentment at the discrimination against that race in the matter of naturalization, and so the geographical provision, which did not affect Japan, was substituted. But it is very evident that Congress was unwilling to depend upon a simple friendly agreement as the sole protection against a possible resumption of unrestricted immigration from Japan, and accordingly the rather ingenious proviso that "no alien now in any way excluded from or prevented from entering the United States" was added to the bill. The Japanese, of course, are now prevented from entering the United States by reason of the gentleman's agreement, and it is apparent that the provision quoted would be an effective barrier against immigration from that country in the event that the agreement became of no effect.



## IMMIGRATION FROM INDIA

The immediate practical effect of the latitude and longitude clause, will be to allay the hitherto existing fear of a great influx of east Indians or Hindus to the Pacific coast. To be sure, immigration from India was never large, 1,695 arrivals in 1910 being the high-water mark of the movement, but the coast States had learned by previous experience with the Chinese and Japanese influx how handfuls of Asiatic immigration soon became throngs and they were determined that the threatened invasion from India should be checked before it also became a serious problem. Fortunately for the United States, Canada adopted a drastic policy of exclusion which suddenly cut off what promised to become a veritable deluge of Hindu immigration into British Columbia. This, together with our own inhospitable attitude has checked the movement to both countries during the last four or five years. But the United States had no effective legal means of dealing with the matter until the geographical test was enacted. This solved the problem, at least for the time being. In addition it so extended the policy of Asiatic exclusion that it now applies in one way or another to all Asia except Turkey, Persia, Siberia and a part of Arabia.

## OTHER DEBARRED CLASSES

In addition to illiterates and natives of the restricted area in Asia, the new law makes several more or less important additions to the classes who were denied admission to the United States under previous acts. These new debarred classes include persons of constitutional psychopathic inferiority, persons afflicted with chronic alcoholism, vagrants, persons who advocate

or teach the unlawful destruction of property, or who are affiliated with any organization which so advocates or teaches, and stowaways, except that otherwise admissible stowaways may be admitted by the Secretary of Labor. Several changes are also made in the phraseology of the old law respecting excluded classes. For example, the old law excluded "insane persons, and persons who have been insane within five years," and also "persons who have had two or more attacks of insanity at any time previously," while the new law in that regard simply reads "insane persons" and "persons who have had one or more attacks of insanity at any time previously." The old law excluded "polygamists, or persons who admit their belief in the practise of polygamy," while the new law includes "polygamists, or persons who practise polygamy or believe in or advocate the practise of polygamy," and "persons afflicted with tuberculosis" in the old law, is made to read, "persons afflicted with tuberculosis in any form" in the new act. The law of 1907 also excludes another class designated as mentally defective aliens when it was believed that such defect, however slight, might affect the alien's ability to earn a living, but the new act excludes this class without reference to the economic factor.

It will be seen that the new law is more stringent than the old with regard to the admission of insane persons, or those liable to become insane. Danger from this source is further guarded against by a provision that medical officers who have had special training in the diagnosis of insanity and mental defects shall be stationed at ports of entry, the obvious purpose being that aliens shall undergo a more rigid mental examination than in the past. The drastic pro-

visions relative to cases of suspected insanity are somewhat modified, however, by an additional new clause which stipulates that aliens certified for insanity or any mental defect may appeal to a board of medical officers of the United States Public Health Service and may introduce one expert medical witness before the board in their own behalf.

#### CONTRACT LABOR AND INDUCED IMMIGRATION

The long-existing law against the importation of labor under contract is amended so as to provide for the exclusion of laborers coming by reason of false, as well as true, promises of employment. The contract labor law, however, has always provided that skilled labor may be imported "if labor of like kind unemployed can not be found in this country." The new law modifies this exception by the inclusion of the Immigration Commission's recommendation that the question of the necessity of bringing in skilled labor may be determined by the Secretary of Labor prior to the importation, whereas under previous laws this could not be determined prior to the arrival of the imported laborers at a United States port. The contract labor law does not apply to alien actors, artists, singers, or to those who belong to any recognized learned profession. The present law adds nurses to the other exempt professional classes.

The solicitation of immigration by transportation companies has long been under the ban. Formerly a fine of \$1,000 was imposed on steamship companies for each offense, such fine to be collected by means of ordinary legal procedure, but there have been few if any cases in which violators have been punished under the law, altho it is quite generally supposed that

steamship companies did solicit and promote immigration contrary to the law. The new law is far more stringent in this regard, as it subjects violators to either civil or criminal prosecution, instead of civil prosecution alone as in earlier laws. What is more to the point, the Secretary of Labor is given authority to impose an administrative fine of \$400 in each case if he deems such action advisable. The new law goes even further than this in an effort to prevent the stimulation of immigration by the steamship companies for it even stipulates that, whenever the Secretary of Labor is satisfied that the law is being persistently violated, it shall be his duty to deny to the offending steamship company the right to land passengers of any or all classes at United States ports for such a period as may be necessary to insure an observance of the law.

Under the Act of 1907 the Secretary of Labor was granted a special fund of \$50,000 annually for the enforcement of the law excluding contract laborers, and in the new act the fund is increased to \$100,000 annually and made available for the exclusion of induced and assisted immigrants as well as contract laborers.

#### OVERCOMING A SUPREME COURT DECISION

Another amendment which may be of considerable importance in the administration of the immigration law concerns the long existing provision excluding persons likely to become a public charge. Altho necessarily indefinite this provision is very effective, and among the various classes who are denied admission year by year "persons likely to become a public charge" have been by far the most numerous. In the text of the old law this class appeared between paupers and professional beggars in the list of excluded aliens, and

accordingly the inference was that it applied solely to the aliens' condition as regards health, age, means, etc. But immigration officials eventually began to consider circumstances not directly connected with the alien in determining whether they were likely to become public charges if admitted, and finally it became a common practise to reject persons on that account, because poor economic conditions existed in the locality to which they were destined, or even because of racial feeling against the alien in question, the theory being that if aliens could not get employment there they would necessarily become public charges.

This construction of the law was finally tested in the courts in the case of a group of Russian Ossetins, a Caucasus Mountain people, who came to New York, destined to Portland, Oregon, and were denied admission as persons likely to become a public charge chiefly because it appeared that because of poor industrial conditions then existing in Portland it would be impossible for them to find employment there. The Supreme Court of the United States, however, took an opposite view of the matter, and, in short, held that aliens could be excluded as "likely to become a public charge" only "on the ground of permanent personal objections accompanying them irrespective of local conditions." In reaching this decision the Supreme Court held that so long as "persons likely to become a public charge" were mentioned in the law along with beggars, paupers, idiots and other classes of that nature they were to be considered as generally similar to the others and therefore not liable to different treatment. The court held that the statute "deals with admission to the United States, not to Portland" and added that:



"It would be an amazing claim of power if commissioners decided not to admit aliens because the labor market of the United States was overstocked. Yet, as officers of the general Government, they would seem to be more concerned with that than with the conditions of any particular city or State."

The Secretary of Labor appealed to Congress to amend the law so as to overcome the Court's objection and recommended that the clause be amended to read "persons likely for any reason to become a public charge," and that it be transferred from its unhappy position between paupers and beggars to another part of the section. Congress adopted the last but not the first suggestion, and the provision is now found in that part of the section which refers more especially to rejections on account of economic conditions.

#### DEPORTATION OF CRIMINALS

The regulation of immigration was not fully assumed by the Federal Government until 1882. Among various other classes of aliens who were deemed undesirable the law enacted in that year provided for the exclusion of convicts, except those convicted of political offenses. All subsequent laws have a similar provision, and since 1891, in common with other debarred aliens, convicts or criminals whose true character was not discovered until after they were admitted to the country have been subject to deportation. At first such deportations could be made only within one year after landing, but this period was subsequently extended to two, and then to three years, and in the new law it is fixed at five years, with the drastic proviso that anarchists, and persons who were criminals before coming to the United States, may be deported irrespective of the



time of their entry into the country. Since 1910 the law has provided for the deportation of prostitutes and persons concerned with prostitution without reference to the date of their immigration, but all other classes were until now exempt from deportation after three years residence in this country.

Until the present law went into effect, however, there was no provision whatever for deporting aliens on account of crimes committed after landing in the United States, except, as already stated, in the case of prostitution and relating offenses. No matter how many other crimes an alien might commit in this country he could not be deported on account of them, and in consequence there was no legal means of getting rid of this class of undesirables. But the new law makes a radical change in the previous policy of the Government in this respect by providing as follows:

Any alien who is hereafter sentenced to imprisonment for a term of one year or more because of conviction in this country of a crime involving moral turpitude, committed within five years after the entry of the alien to the United States, or who is hereafter sentenced more than once to such a term of imprisonment because of conviction in this country of any crime involving moral turpitude, committed at any time after entry . . . shall upon the warrant of the Secretary of Labor, be taken into custody and deported.

It is provided, however, that deportation shall not be made if a criminal is pardoned, or if the court imposing sentence makes a recommendation that deportation shall not be made.

As elsewhere noted,\* the deportation of aliens on account of crimes committed after landing in the United States was one of the recommendations which the Im-

\* See page 329.

migration Commission made to Congress, and from the Commission's investigation of alien criminality it is believed that it is a provision which will have a wholesome effect on certain kinds of law violations which are all too prevalent among our immigration population.

#### INCREASED HEAD TAX

The new law fixes the "head tax" at \$8.00 on every alien entering the United States, excepting children under sixteen years of age who accompany their father or their mother. In the previous law the tax was \$4.00 on every alien without reference to age. According to the report of the Senate Committee on Immigration\* the purpose of exempting children under sixteen is, "to make the increased head tax fall more heavily on the unmarried and 'bird-of-passage' class of aliens than upon men accompanied by their wives or children; to have the tax, to the slight extent that it operates as a restrictive factor, apply most strongly against the least desirable elements."

In making this change in the law Congress followed a suggestion of the Immigration Commission that the head tax be adjusted so as to make a marked discrimination in favor of men with families. Under the old law, residents of Canada, Newfoundland, Cuba, or Mexico were admitted without payment of the head tax, but now the exemption is limited to those countries only when they come for a temporary stay, and while the old law did not impose the tax on immigrants entering Guam, Porto Rico, or Hawaii, the new law makes no such exception in that regard.

\* Senate Report No. 352, 64th Congress, 2d Session, p. 3.

## INSPECTORS AND MATRONS ON SHIPS

One of the recommendations of the Immigration Commission was for the enactment of a law providing for the placing of Government officials, both men and women, on immigrant carrying ships, the purpose stated being the enforcement of the law and the protection of steerage passengers. This recommendation was prompted by the findings of agents of the Commission who traveled in the guise of immigrants in the steerage of a considerable number of transatlantic ships and both observed and experienced the hardships and indignities to which immigrants were subjected, especially on some of the lines. It was believed that if our immigrant inspectors and matrons were on board, steerage passengers would be afforded better protection and it was also believed that such officials could study the various immigrants during the ocean voyage and thus would be able to render valuable assistance to officials at ports of landing in their inspection of newcomers. The recommendation was seriously considered by Congress and provision for carrying it into effect has appeared in various bills during the past four or five years. It was feared, however, that it would be impracticable if not impossible to enforce such a law because of the doubtful right this Government would have to place officials on foreign ships sailing from foreign ports. After much discussion in committees and also on the floor of Congress it was provided that negotiations be entered into with those countries, vessels of which bring aliens to the United States, with a view to detailing inspectors and matrons of the immigration service for duty on such vessels. The outcome will, therefore, depend wholly upon the attitude of

foreign Governments and while some of them may grant the desired privilege it is altogether probable that others will refuse it.

#### ADMINISTRATIVE FINES

The so-called administrative fine, which is a penalty imposed by the Secretary of Labor for certain violations of the immigration law on the part of steamship companies, has been a highly important factor in preventing such companies from bringing diseased or mentally deficient aliens to this country. In earlier laws this fine was imposed only in cases where aliens afflicted with a loathsome or a dangerous contagious disease were brought to United States ports, and when it appeared that the disease existed, and might have been detected by means of a competent medical examination, at the time of embarkation at a foreign port. The penalty was fixed at \$100 in each case. The Immigration Act of 1907 amended the administrative fine provision of previous laws to include the bringing of idiots, imbeciles, epileptics, and persons afflicted with tuberculosis, as well as those afflicted with a loathsome or a dangerous contagious disease, but the amount of the penalty was not changed.

The new law, however, makes a far wider use of the administrative fine than its predecessors did, for in addition to the diseases named in the Act of 1907 it includes insanity, feeble-mindedness, constitutional psychopathic inferiority, chronic alcoholism, and tuberculosis in any form, and the penalty is increased from \$100 to \$200 in each case. A like penalty is provided for bringing aliens who are excluded because unable to read, or because they are natives of the restricted area in Asia previously described, if these dis-

abilities might have been detected by the exercise of reasonable precaution prior to the departure of the aliens from a foreign port. An administrative fine of \$25 in each case is also imposed for bringing aliens afflicted with any mental defect, other than those already enumerated, or physical defects which may affect the ability of the aliens to earn a living, provided, of course, that such defects existed when the alien embarked at a foreign port and might have been discovered by means of a competent medical examination at that time.

But the new law imposes another heavy penalty in all cases which are subject to an administrative fine, for it provides that, in addition to the regular penalty, the steamship company concerned shall be assessed an amount equal to that paid by each alien of the classes named for his transportation from the initial point of his departure for the United States, which amount is to be paid to the debarred alien by a United States official.

The method of enforcing payment of administrative fines in all the cases considered is simple but exceedingly effective because the law provides that the vessels involved shall not be granted clearance papers until the fine is paid or a sufficient amount of money deposited to insure its payment. In practise the administrative fine system serves the double purpose of protecting the United States against the attempted immigration of diseased and defective aliens, and, what is more important, of saving inadmissible aliens from the cost, hardships and disappointments which are the inevitable result of coming to the United States only to be turned back at the gateway. In the past the fear of the fine has led steamship companies to make a fairly careful



medical examination of intending immigrants at foreign ports of embarkation. With the increased penalty imposed under the new law, and the new classes of aliens brought within the scope of the system, a more thorough and certainly a more comprehensive inspection abroad will result.

#### OTHER CHANGES

The new act makes numerous other changes in our previous immigration laws and some of the more important of these changes may be briefly mentioned. The old law excluded "women and girls coming into the United States for the purpose of prostitution or for any other immoral purpose," but in the new act this prohibition applies to all "persons," so that men as well as women and girls are included. Another very important addition to the law respecting immoral classes is found in the provision that the marriage of a sexually immoral woman to an American citizen shall not invest the former with citizenship and thus prevent her deportation, provided the marriage takes place after she has been arrested as a prostitute, or after the commission of acts which make her liable to deportation.

Aliens entering the United States are required by the new law to state under oath the purposes for which they come, the length of time they intend to remain in the country, and whether or not they intend to remain permanently and become citizens.

Under previous laws hearings before boards of special inquiry, which boards pass upon the admissibility of aliens in cases where immigrant inspectors are in doubt, have been "separate and apart from the public," but the new act provides that an immigrant who is



brought before the board may have one friend or relative present. Several sections of the new law are designed to prevent the privileges accorded to alien seamen under the seamen's law from being used as a means of violating the immigration law.

There are various other new or amended provisions in the new law which are intended to correct faulty administrative features of previous legislation, and on the whole it may be anticipated that the law will considerably strengthen our system of immigration regulation and control, in addition to the all-important fact that it marks the beginning of a national policy of immigration restriction.

## XXI

### PRESENT AND FUTURE RESTRICTION

By an overwhelming vote in the Senate and the House of Representatives, Congress limited to a percentage basis, until June 30, 1922, the number of aliens allowed to enter the United States. On May 19, 1921, the President signed this emergency law, which allows only 3 per cent. of the number of foreign born persons of any nationality present in the United States in 1910 to enter during the year ending June 30, 1922. In accordance with its provisions, the Secretary of State, the Secretary of Commerce and the Secretary of Labor, in joint conference, have established the following quotas of each nationality eligible to enter during the fiscal year:

The law determines nationality by country of birth, treating as separate countries colonies or dependencies for which enumeration was made in the 1910 census. According to the regulations made for the enforcement of the act:

"place of birth shall govern, notwithstanding change in nationalities since 1910 due to transfer of territory where birth occurred in some other country, or the creation of a new country, unless such transfer or new country has not been recognized by the Government of the United States, in which latter event such transfer, or creation of new country, shall be disregarded. To illustrate: (1) A native of Alsace-Lorraine, regardless of claimed nationality, shall be charged to France; (2) a native of a Baltic state (formerly a portion of Russia) the government of which has not

NUMBER OF ALIENS ADMISSIBLE UNDER THE ACT OF MAY 19, 1921,  
ENTITLED "AN ACT TO LIMIT THE IMMIGRATION INTO THE  
UNITED STATES"

Country or place of birth	Quota June 3-30, 1921	Quota Fiscal year 1921-22	Limit per month. Fiscal year 1921-22
Albania.....	22	287	57
Austria.....	571	7,444	1,489
Belgium.....	119	1,557	311
Bulgaria.....	23	301	60
Czechoslovakia.....	1,095	14,269	2,854
Danzig.....	22	285	57
Denmark.....	433	5,644	1,129
Finland.....	298	3,890	778
Fiume (1).....	5	71	14
France.....	437	5,692	1,138
Germany.....	5,219	68,039	13,608
Greece.....	252	3,286	657
Hungary.....	432	5,635	1,127
Italy.....	3,224	42,021	8,404
Jugoslavia.....	491	6,405	1,281
Luxemburg.....	7	92	18
Netherlands.....	276	3,602	720
Norway.....	930	12,116	2,423
Poland (2).....	1,528	20,019	4,004
Eastern Galicia.....	451	5,781	1,156
Portugal (including Azores and Madeira Is- lands).....	177	2,269	454
Roumania.....	569	7,414	1,483
Russia (including Siberia).....	2,627	34,247	6,849
Spain.....	51	663	133
Sweden.....	1,531	19,956	3,991
Switzerland.....	287	3,745	749
United Kingdom.....	5,923	77,206	15,441
Other Europe (including Andorra, Gibraltar, Lichtenstein, Malta, Monaco, San Marino, and Iceland).....	6	86	17
Armenia.....	122	1,588	318
Palestine.....	4	56	11
Smyrna District (3).....	34	438	88
Syria.....	69	905	181
Other Turkey (Europe and Asia).....	16	215	43
Other Asia (including Persia and territory other than Siberia which is not included in the Asiatic Barred Zone. Persons born in Siberia are included in the Russia quota.) ..	6	78	16
Africa.....	9	120	24
Australia.....	21	271	54
New Zealand.....	4	50	10
Atlantic Islands (other than Azores, Madeira, and islands adjacent to the American Con- tinents).....	5	60	12
Pacific Islands (other than New Zealand and islands adjacent to the American Con- tinents).....	2	22	4
Total.....	27,298	355,825	71,163

been recognized by the Government of the United States, shall be charged to Russia; and (3) an alien born in what is now recognized as Poland shall be charged to the quota of that country, regardless of present citizenship."

#### PREFERENCE IN THE LAW

The number of aliens of any nationality who may be admitted in any month is limited to 20 per cent. of the total yearly quota for that nationality. When the maximum number of aliens of that nationality is reached in any month or in any year, all others must be excluded. The act provides, however, that preference so far as possible shall be given to: (1) the wives, parents, brothers, sisters, children under eighteen years of age and fiancées of citizens of the United States; (2) aliens in the United States who have applied for citizenship; (3) persons who served in the military and naval forces of the United States during the war.

This law is in addition to and not in substitution of other immigration laws or agreements, all of which are continued in force.

#### CLASSES EXEMPTED FROM LAW

Eight classes of aliens are excepted from the quota count:

1. Aliens in continuous transit through the United States:
2. Aliens lawfully admitted to the United States who later go in transit from one part of the United States to another through foreign contiguous territory.
3. Aliens coming to the United States as tourists or temporarily for business or pleasure.
4. Aliens applying for admission from certain

foreign countries following a continuous residence of one year or more. This applies to Canada, Newfoundland, Cuba, Mexico, countries of Central or South America, the Bermudas and islands lying off the coasts of North and South America not more distant therefrom than the Bermudas.

5. Aliens returning from a temporary visit abroad. This visit must not exceed six months in duration or satisfactory evidence of a temporary visit must be established if a longer visit is made.

6. Aliens employed as domestic servants. Such immigrants must actually have been employed either in the United States or in a foreign country in the household of the person or persons accompanying them or to whom destined in the United States.

7. Government officials with their families, attendants, servants and employees.

8. Aliens from countries immigration from which is regulated in accordance with treaties or agreements relating solely to immigration.

This measure of restriction cuts down the numbers entering during this year to a maximum of 355,825, with a limit per month of 71,163. This is a substantial reduction over the year previous when upwards of 1,000,000 immigrants entered, a figure approaching the average before the war. The actual number entering will probably be less than this maximum, as it is likely that some of the northern countries of Europe will not utilize their quotas.

#### A SELECTIVE MEASURE

Of greater importance, perhaps, than the restriction of numbers, is the effect of the law as a selective measure. There is little restriction of immigration from

any country of the western hemisphere. Judging from the experience of the last few years and the few months during which the law has operated, nearly all of those who wish to come from Great Britain, the Scandinavian countries, France, Switzerland, Holland and Germany will be admitted. On the other hand the numbers from southern and eastern Europe, Italy, Austria, Hungary, Russia, Poland, Turkey, the Balkan States, are sharply restricted. Against a pre-war immigration of 250,000, the Italians are restricted to 42,021; Poland to 20,019, which is only a fraction of its pre-war average; Russia to 34,247, and Greece, which was developing a large immigration to the United States, to the small number of 3,286. Thus we see that this bill thoroughly carries out the principle of restricting most strongly the immigration of those most difficult to assimilate and those whose normal tendency is to go into the great cities and industrial centers. It is probable that this selection will be made wholly on the other side of the Atlantic when Congress has had time to work out additional measures, or when it shall have given to the administrative authorities the necessary discretion for the best administration of this law. In that event people would be prevented from embarking on the other side unless they were practically certain of being permitted to land on this side. Thus much expense and not a little personal suffering would be avoided. Further it is probable that the law will make more careful provision than has ever been made before for the distribution of the immigrants, partly by selection on the other side, partly by arrangements made here, when a much larger proportion of the immigrants would be directed into the rural districts and into those lines of occupa-



tion where there is a demand for labor; and fewer would be received in the congested centers of population where they tend to add to the numbers of the unemployed.

It is clearly the intention of Congress, in this restrictive measure, that in the future greater care shall be taken to protect against exploitation those who do come; to see to it that they are given better opportunities for education and industrial training, in order that they may become better equipped for American citizenship. In fact the recently passed immigration bill will be supplemented by a greatly improved naturalization law which will serve still further to select those fitted to become American citizens and so to train them that they may become citizens of a higher type whom we may welcome most warmly into our great American brotherhood. Altho little has been said about the matter, such seems the intention of Congress.

#### THE NEED OF SUCH A LAW

Why do we need such a law? The immediate occasion of this so-called emergency measure grew out of the war. Hundreds of thousands, quite probably millions, of immigrants were prevented by the war from coming here either to become American citizens or to make their living here for a few years until they might save enough to return to their home countries there to live in greater ease than ever before. With the signing of the armistice and the increasing facilities for travel, thousands on this side who had been waiting for three or four years to return naturally seized the opportunity to depart; so the exodus was enormously increased for a time. Now a change has

come, and the numbers sailing to Europe are on an average substantially the same as in pre-war days. The incomers at the present time are made up largely of the wives, children, and immediate relatives of immigrants who had come before the war, but for whom, for the reasons given above, the first comers had not been able to send during the war period. In consequence the thousands now coming are not independent producers but must to a large extent be supported by their relatives already here. In these days of non-employment, many thousands of them are liable to become an added burden to this country.

Again, our legislators are moved by the need of protection against contagious diseases and criminals and revolutionists. Scores of typhus cases from the fever-stricken regions of Southern Europe have already been found; and it is a well-known fact that a large part of the revolutionary doctrines spread in this country within the last few months have come from foreign agitators.

More important still, however, is the fact that the normal pre-war immigration was too large for America's economic welfare. We were warned of this alarming condition by the Immigration Commission which made the most careful investigation ever recorded. Its special agents, sufficient in numbers and skill to cover twenty of the leading industries and the living conditions in our great industrial centers, with access to the books of the companies and the city records, showed beyond all doubt that the yearly average of a million immigrants held down decidedly the living conditions of the great wage-earning classes. In some cases the standards were even lowered. Generally the number of immigrants checked what otherwise would

have been a normal rise of those standards. This is the fundamental reason why we need added restrictive measures.

This argument is strengthened when we learn that a very large percentage of recent immigrants are of the type less readily assimilated than those who came in earlier years. Before the 80's probably more than 75 per cent. of those who came expected to remain here and become American citizens. They brought their families with them. They scattered themselves through the more sparsely populated regions of the Middle West, and actually became the industrial backbone of our country. Most of them came from the Northern and Western parts of Europe where the institutions and habits of living, tho in the past—as those of Norway—not those of English-speaking countries, were somewhat akin to American institutions. Even then, large colonies formed here which retained their own language and often held themselves apart from the great mass of the body politic. We can recall some of the large German and Scandinavian settlements of the Middle and Northwest.

Moreover, this unfortunate tendency, has increased vastly since the beginning of the 80's. Up to the opening of the Great War, 75 per cent. and upwards of all of the immigrants came not from the classes just mentioned but rather from Southern and Eastern Europe. Such people rarely speak English; their religious experiences, their political experiences, their standards of living, their racial types differ far more widely from ours than do those of the earlier immigrants from Northern and Western Europe. These later immigrants manifest also little desire to settle in the newer sections of the country where indeed the

free land is already taken up; rather they drift into the congested centers of our great cities and industrial villages where they form colonies apart from the other inhabitants. We speak in New York, in Philadelphia, in Boston, in Chicago, and in the other large cities, of our Italian quarter, our Swedish quarter, our Polish quarter, our Negro quarter, (largely from the West Indies), our German quarter, and especially our Jewish quarter. These newer peoples must bridge a greater gap than did the earlier immigrants before they become Americans in their habits of thought and living. And their settlements in the great cities have brought additional danger of disease, crime and revolution, as well as of partizan political influence.

The remedies of course for these growing evils are: first, restriction of the number of immigrants so that they may be gradually trained and assimilated, and second, selection so far as possible of the best types with respect to both occupation and assimilability.

#### ACT ONLY TEMPORARY

The act of May 19, 1921, introducing the percentage plan into American immigration legislation is only of a temporary nature and designed to meet an emergency. This method of restricting immigration has, however, been advocated for a number of years, the first official suggestion regarding it coming from Senator Dillingham, of Vermont. Mr. W. W. Husband, the Commissioner General of Immigration of the United States, who was secretary of the former Immigration Commission, said in a lecture given before an audience at New York University during the summer

of 1921 that he felt that some sort of a percentage plan would be written into the permanent legislation of the United States to meet the evident desire of the American people for restrictive measures.

For many years large majorities, in both the House of Representatives and the Senate, have been clearly of the opinion that there should be a considerable restriction of immigration. By large majorities they passed bills favoring restrictions which were vetoed first by President Cleveland, then by President Taft and afterward by President Wilson. But the majorities were not quite sufficient to pass the bills over the Presidents' veto, except in the case of the last bill, passed in 1917. This contained the literacy test and was vetoed by President Wilson. The latest bill was passed (May 19, 1921) by an overwhelming vote in both the Senate and the House of Representatives, and signed by the President without question.

Most of the reasons for the added emphasis placed upon prompt action along restrictive lines have come as a result of the war.

#### OPPOSITION TO RESTRICTION

During the war many people felt that the chief opposition to vigorous military action on the part of the United States Government came from aliens or those who had but lately become naturalized citizens. Much of the pro-German and pacifist propaganda, as well as a very considerable part of the resistance against conscription came from those sources. The feeling on the part of large numbers of our people that such acts were often carried on by treacherous means and were treasonable in nature gave, of course, a greatly added



emphasis to the feeling in favor of restriction which had earlier been stimulated primarily by economic and sanitary motives.

Today, however, there is considerable opposition to further restrictive measures. No one, of course, will venture to raise his voice in favor of the admission of those afflicted with contagious or loathsome diseases if apparently incurable, or against the admission of the insane, feeble-minded, criminals or anarchists, unless, in the case of those physically or mentally unsound, he happens to be a personal friend or relative of those afflicted, or in the case of the anarchists or revolutionary radicals, he is secretly sympathetic with their doctrines. When, however, the exclusion movement is based on economic grounds, it meets with vigorous opposition from two classes: first, many large employers of labor who apparently desire to increase their labor force more easily; and second, speaking generally, the Hebrews.

The attitude of employers who wish to secure labor at low wages is of course easily understood because it is quite natural; but many very large employers, as well as other public-spirited citizens, believe that of even greater consequence than a very large and profitable production of goods, is the maintenance of the standards of living of the great mass of the American people, and those of course are made up of the wage earners. An ample supply of labor and a demand for labor are neither of them rigidly fixed; both are connected with the wages that are to be paid. There is practically never a time when labor can not be secured provided wages are raised; and again if for any reason employers are compelled to lower wages materially, there will be a surplus of labor. Of course, this does



not note at all the fact that employers stand sometimes in much greater need of labor than at others; but the wage factor is always important. Those at the present time who are favoring restrictive measures, therefore, are doing so because they believe that with our present imperfect methods of distributing immigrants on their arrival in this country, there is at the present rates of wages a distinct surplus of labor and that further immigration will increase unemployment and almost certainly increase pauperism.

The Jews, on the other hand, are influenced very largely apparently by race feeling. For centuries members of the Jewish race have been discriminated against in many countries, and while for the last few years, with a very few notable exceptions for short times, there has been little in the way of actual persecution, there doubtless have been many unpleasant experiences which have led them to wish to come to this country where their disabilities are much less than in most of the countries of continental Europe. Under these circumstances, it is natural that the relatives and friends who are here should ignore the economic factor, even to the extent of lowering somewhat our standards of living, and bring in as many as possible of the members of their race. The fact that Hebrews show a marked disinclination to farm work, and concentrate in the cities where they often live under most crowded and unsanitary conditions, seems to them to be of minor consequence.

In other ways restriction may prove a benefit to the United States. Some people look with apprehension upon the possibility of the immigration tide towards America being turned in the direction of other countries in consequence of American restrictive measures.

This may be the effect of restrictive measures, but on the other hand it should be remembered that those other countries are in the position of the United States seventy-five to a hundred years ago, when a large immigration could be utilized in upbuilding new regions. A large immigration into these countries, such as Canada and South America, will result in an increased productiveness which no doubt will be reflected in increased buying in this country. What may seem to be a temporary loss may turn out in the end to be a blessing in disguise. There is also no doubt that if unlimited immigration were to be allowed into the United States under present conditions, there would result a revulsion of popular feeling which might cause the prohibition of all immigration. Very few students of the question feel that this is necessary. Wise restrictive measures now, in the long run may make it possible for the United States to receive in the next fifty years more immigrants than it would otherwise under an unrestricted policy which did not take into account the many difficult problems which would thereby arise.

With the exception of those who have the personal interests just referred to, practically every thorough student of immigration has reached the conclusion that we have our choice between putting on additional restrictive measures or of lowering in the not distant future the average standard of living of our wage earners. Few really patriotic American citizens who are unprejudiced would favor any lowering of our standards.

#### MAINTENANCE OF AMERICAN STANDARDS

Those who oppose restriction lay great emphasis upon the need of selecting immigrants on the other

side of the ocean, upon methods of distributing them after their arrival here, upon better measures of training them in the English language, and in other directions that will aid them in rapid assimilation. These measures, however, are supported with equal emphasis by most, if not all, of those people who favor restriction. So all are at one on the question of standards; and this is as it should be, for the maintenance of our standards is paramount. The future of Europe as well as America is at stake. When we enjoin high standards we are in no wise selfish but far-sighted and sensible.



## APPENDICES





## KEY TO APPENDICES

- A.* Immigration Laws of the United States. Act of February 5, 1917, and Acts Approved October 16, 1918; October 19, 1918; June 5, 1920; December 26, 1920, and May 10, 1921.
- B.* Law of May 19, 1921, Commonly Known as the Percentage Act. Regulations for the Enforcement of This Act Issued June 1, 1921.
- C.* Naturalization Laws of the United States.
- D.* California Alien Land Laws, 1920.
- E.* Canadian Immigration Law.
- F.* Important Sections of the Australian Law.
- G.* Important Sections of the Immigration Law of Argentina.
- H.* Sections of New Zealand's Immigration Act.
- I.* STATISTICAL.
  - 1. Immigrant Aliens Admitted, Fiscal Years Ended June 30, 1899 to 1921, by Race or People.
  - 2. Immigrant Aliens Admitted, Fiscal Years Ended June 30, 1899, to 1921, by Countries.

3. Emigrant Aliens Departed, Fiscal Years Ended June 30, 1908 to 1921, by Races or People.
4. Emigrant Aliens Departed, Fiscal Years Ended June 30, 1908 to 1921, by Countries.
5. Increase or Decrease in Population by Arrival and Departure of Aliens During the Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1921, by Races or People.
6. Total Immigration Each Year, 1820 to 1921.
7. Last Permanent Residence of Immigrant Aliens Admitted and Future Permanent Residence of Emigrant Aliens Departed, During the Six Months Ended December 31, 1920, by Countries.
8. (a) Net Increase of Population by Arrival and Departure of Aliens, Fiscal Years Ended June 30, 1908, to 1921.  
(b) Net Increase or Decrease of Population by Arrival and Departure of Aliens During the Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1921, by Months.
9. Aliens Debarred, and Aliens Deported After Entering, 1892 to 1921, by Causes.
10. Summary of Chinese Seeking Admission to the United States, Fiscal Years Ended June 30, 1907—1921, by Classes.
11. Nativity and Country of Birth of Farmers in the United States by Geographical Divisions and by Tenure.

12. Farm Operators in the United States, Classified by Color and Nativity and by Tenure, 1910.
13. Number and Per Cent. of Foreign-born Population, According to Geographical Origin and Country of Birth.
14. Foreign-born Population, by Principal Countries of Birth, 1910 and 1900.
15. Foreign-born Population, by Country of Birth, 1860-1910.
16. Foreign White Stock in the United States, by Country of Origin, 1900-1910.
17. Statement of Total Immigration to Canada, from January 1, 1897, to March 31, 1921.
18. Statement of the Total Immigration to Canada, by Nationalities, from July 1, 1900, to March 31, 1920.

## APPENDIX A

### IMMIGRATION ACT OF FEBRUARY 5, 1917

NOTE.—The Immigration Act of February 5, 1917, repeals the Act of February 20, 1907, the act of March 3, 1903, and all prior acts or parts of acts inconsistent with the new law. In the back of this pamphlet are published such portions of the prior acts as are not repealed by or reenacted in the act of February 5, 1917; also the act of March 2, 1907, regarding expatriation; an extract from the sundry civil appropriation act of March 4, 1909, the act relative to outward alien manifests of March 4, 1909; the "White-slave traffic act" of June 25, 1910; the act of August 24, 1912, providing that all charges for maintenance and return of Chinese shall be borne by steamship companies; the act of March 4, 1913, creating the Department of Labor; and the act of March 4, 1915, "to promote the welfare of American seamen," etc. If necessary to refer to the old acts, they may be found in the United States Statutes at Large, as follows:

Act approved March 3, 1875: 18 Stat., part 3, page 477.

Act Approved August 3, 1882: 22 Stat., page 214.

Act approved June 26, 1884 (sec. 22 only): 23 Stat., page 85.

Act approved February 26, 1885: 23 Stat., page 332.

Act approved February 23, 1887: 24 Stat., page 414.

Act approved October 19, 1888: 25 Stat., page 565.

Act approved March 3, 1891: 26 Stat., page 1084.

Act approved February 15, 1893 (sec. 7): 27 Stat., page 449.

Act approved March 3, 1893: 27 Stat., page 569.

Act approved August 18, 1894: 28 Stat., page 390.

Act approved March 2, 1895: 28 Stat., page 780.

Act approved June 6, 1900: 31 Stat., page 611.

Act approved April 29, 1902: 32 Stat., part 1, page 176.

Act approved March 3, 1903: 32 Stat., part 1, page 1213.

Act approved March 22, 1904: 33 Stat., part 144.

Act approved April 28, 1904: 33 Stat., part 1, page 591.

Act approved February 3, 1905: 33 Stat., part 1, page 684.

Act approved February 20, 1907: 34 Stat., page 898.

Act approved March 26, 1910: 36 Stat., page 263.

### ACT OF FEBRUARY 5, 1917

An Act To regulate the immigrations of aliens to, and the residence of aliens in, the United States.

*Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled,* That the word "alien" wherever used in this Act shall include any person not a native-born or naturalized citizen of the United States; but this definition shall not be held to include Indians of the United States not taxed or citizens of the islands under the jurisdiction of the United States. That the term "United States" as used in the title as well as in the various sections of this Act shall be construed to mean the United States, and any waters, territory, or other place subject to the jurisdiction thereof, except the Isthmian Canal Zone; but if any alien shall leave the Canal Zone or any insular possession of the United States and attempt to enter any other place under the jurisdiction of the United States, nothing contained in this Act shall be construed as permitting him to enter under any other conditions than those applicable to all aliens. That the term "seaman" as used in this Act shall include every person signed on the ship's articles and employed in any capacity on board any vessel arriving in the United States from any foreign port or place.

That this Act shall be enforced in the Philippine Islands by officers of the general government thereof, unless and until it is superseded by an act passed by the Philippine Legislature and approved by the President of the United States to regulate immigration in the Philippine Islands as authorized in the Act entitled "An Act to declare the purpose of the people of the United States as to the future political status of the people of the Philippine Islands, and to provide a more autonomous government for those islands," approved August twenty-ninth, nineteen hundred and sixteen.

SEC. 2. That there shall be levied, collected, and paid a tax of \$8 for every alien, including alien seamen regularly

admitted as provided in this Act, entering the United States: *Provided*, That children under sixteen years of age who accompany their father or their mother shall not be subject to said tax.<sup>1</sup> The said tax shall be paid to the collector of customs of the port or customs district to which said alien shall come, or, if there be no collector at such port or district, then to the collector nearest thereto, by the master, agent, owner or consignee of the vessel, transportation line or other conveyance or vehicle bringing such alien to the United States, or by the alien himself if he does not come by a vessel, transportation line, or other conveyance or vehicle or when collection from the master, agent, owner, or consignee of the vessel, transportation line, or other conveyance, or vehicle bringing such alien to the United States is impracticable. The tax imposed by this section shall be a lien upon the vessel or other vehicle of carriage or transportation bringing such aliens to the United States, and shall be a debt in favor of the United States against the owner or owners of such vessel or other vehicle, and the payment of such tax may be enforced by any legal or equitable remedy. That the said tax shall not be levied on account of aliens who enter the United States after an uninterrupted residence of at least one year immediately preceding such entrance in the Dominion of Canada, Newfoundland, the Republic of Cuba, or the Republic of Mexico, for a temporary stay, nor on account of otherwise admissible residents or citizens of any possession of the United States, nor on account of aliens in transit through the United States, nor upon aliens who have been lawfully admitted to the United States and who later shall go in transit from one part of the United States to another through foreign contiguous territory, and the Commissioner General of Immigration with the approval of the Secretary of Labor shall issue rules and regulations and prescribe the conditions necessary to prevent abuse of these exceptions: *Provided*, That the Commissioner General of Immigration, under the direction or with the approval of the Secretary of Labor, by agreement with transportation lines, as provided in section twenty-three of this Act, may arrange in some other manner for the payment of the tax imposed by this section upon any or all aliens seeking admission from foreign

<sup>1</sup> For complete list of exceptions, see Rule 1.



contiguous territory:<sup>2</sup> *Provided further*, That said tax, when levied upon aliens entering the Philippine Islands, shall be paid into the treasury of said islands, to be expended for the benefit of such islands: *Provided further*, That in the cases of aliens applying for admission from foreign contiguous territory and rejected, the head tax collected shall upon application, upon a blank which shall be furnished and explained to him, be refunded to the alien.

SEC. 3. That the following classes of aliens shall be excluded from admission into the United States:<sup>3</sup> All idiots, imbeciles, feeble-minded persons, epileptics, insane persons; persons who have had one or more attacks of insanity at any time previously; persons of constitutional psychopathic inferiority; persons with chronic alcoholism; paupers; professional beggars; vagrants; persons afflicted with tuberculosis in any form or with a loathsome or dangerous contagious disease; persons not comprehended within any of the foregoing excluded classes who are found to be and are certified by the examining surgeon as being mentally or physically defective, such physical defect being of a nature which may affect the ability of such alien to earn a living;<sup>4</sup> persons who have been convicted of or admit having committed a felony or other crime or misdemeanor involving moral turpitude; polygamists, or persons who practise polygamy or believe in or advocate the practise of polygamy; anarchists, or persons who believe in or advocate the overthrow by force or violence of the Government of the United States, or of all forms of law, or who disbelieve in or are opposed to organized government, or who advocate the assassination of public officials, or who advocate or teach the unlawful destruction of property; persons who are members of or affiliated with any organization entertaining and teaching disbelief in or opposition to organized government, or who advocate or teach the duty, necessity, or propriety of the unlawful assaulting or killing of any officer or officers, either of specific individuals or of officers generally, of the Government of the United States or of any other organized government, because of his or their official character, or who advocate or

<sup>2</sup> See Rules 1, 12, and 13.

<sup>3</sup> This section enumerates all the excluded classes but two. A description of those two found in Secs. 18 (last proviso) and 23 (last proviso).

<sup>4</sup> See Rule 17 regarding landing under bond.

teach the unlawful destruction of property; prostitutes, or persons coming into the United States for the purpose of prostitution or for any other immoral purpose; persons who directly or indirectly procure or attempt to procure or import prostitutes or persons for the purpose of prostitution or for any other immoral purpose; persons who are supported by or receive in whole or in part the proceeds of prostitution; persons hereinafter called contract laborers, who have been induced, assisted, encouraged, or solicited to migrate to this country by offers or promises of employment, whether such offers or promises are true or false, or in consequence of agreements, oral, written or printed, express or implied, to perform labor in this country of any kind, skilled or unskilled; persons who have come in consequence of advertisements for laborers printed published, or distributed in a foreign country; persons likely to become a public charge;<sup>5</sup> persons who have been deported under any of the provisions of this Act, and who may again seek admission within one year from the date of such deportation, unless prior to their reembarkation at a foreign port or their attempt to be admitted from foreign contiguous territory the Secretary of Labor shall have consented to their reapplying for admission; persons whose tickets or passage is paid for with the money of another, or who are assisted by others to come, unless it is affirmatively and satisfactorily shown that such persons do not belong to one of the foregoing excluded classes; persons whose ticket or passage is paid for by any corporation, association, society, municipality, or foreign government, either directly or indirectly; stowaways, except that any such stowaway, if otherwise admissible, may be admitted in the discretion of the Secretary of Labor;<sup>6</sup> all children under sixteen years of age, unaccompanied by or not coming to one or both of their parents, except that any such children may, in the discretion of the Secretary of Labor, be admitted if in his opinion they are not likely to

<sup>5</sup> This clause excluding aliens on the ground likely to become a public charge has been shifted from its position in Section 2 of the Immigration Act of 1907 to its present position in Section 3 of this Act in order to indicate the intention of Congress that aliens shall be excluded upon said ground for economic as well as other reasons, and with a view to overcoming the decision of the Supreme Court in *Gegiow v. Uhl*, 239 U. S., 3. (Senate Report 352, 64th Cong., 1st Sess.) See Rule 17, regarding landing under bond.

<sup>6</sup> See Rule 7.

become a public charge and are otherwise eligible;<sup>7</sup> unless otherwise provided for by existing treaties, persons who are natives of islands not possessed by the United States adjacent to the Continent of Asia, situate south of the twentieth parallel latitude north, west of the one hundred and sixtieth meridian of longitude east from Greenwich, and north of the tenth parallel of latitude south, or who are natives of any country, province, or dependency situate on the Continent of Asia west of the one hundred and tenth meridian of longitude east from Greenwich and east of the fiftieth meridian of longitude east from Greenwich and south of the fiftieth parallel of latitude north, except that portion of said territory situate between the fiftieth and the sixty-fourth meridians of longitude east from Greenwich and the twenty-fourth and thirty-eighth parallels of latitude north, and no alien now in any way excluded from, or prevented from entering, the United States shall be admitted to the United States. The provision next foregoing, however, shall not apply to persons of the following status or occupations: Government officers, ministers or religious teachers, missionaries, lawyers, physicians, chemists, civil engineers, teachers, students, authors, artists, merchants, and travelers for curiosity or pleasure, nor to their legal wives or their children under sixteen years of age who shall accompany them or who subsequently may apply for admission to the United States, but such persons or their legal wives or foreign-born children who fail to maintain in the United States a status or occupation placing them within the excepted classes shall be deemed to be in the United States contrary to law, and shall be subject to deportation as provided in section nineteen of this Act.<sup>8</sup>

That after three months from the passage of this Act,<sup>9</sup> in addition to the aliens who are by law now excluded from admission into the United States, the following persons shall also be excluded from admission thereto, to wit:

All aliens over sixteen years of age, physically capable of reading, who can not read the English language, or some

<sup>7</sup> See Rule 6.

<sup>8</sup> See Rule 8.

<sup>9</sup> The illiteracy test does not become operative until the morning of May 5, 1917. All other provisions of the law become operative on the morning of May 1, 1917.

other language or dialect, including Hebrew or Yiddish:<sup>10</sup> *Provided*, That any admissible alien, or any alien heretofore or hereafter legally admitted, or any citizen of the United States, may bring in or send for his father or grandfather over fifty-five years of age, his wife, his mother, his grandmother, or his unmarried or widowed daughter, if otherwise admissible, whether such relative can read or not; and such relative shall be permitted to enter. That for the purpose of ascertaining whether aliens can read the immigrant inspectors shall be furnished with slips of uniform size prepared under the direction of the Secretary of Labor, each containing not less than thirty nor more than forty words in ordinary use, printed in plainly legible type in some one of the various languages or dialects of immigrants. Each alien may designate the particular language or dialect in which he desires the examination to be made, and shall be required to read the words printed on the slip in such language or dialect. That the following classes of persons shall be exempt from the operation of the illiteracy test, to wit: All aliens who shall prove to the satisfaction of the proper immigration officer or to the Secretary of Labor that they are seeking admission to the United States to avoid religious persecution in the country of their last permanent residence, whether such persecution be evidenced by overt acts or by laws or governmental regulations that discriminate against the alien or the race to which he belongs because of his religious faith; all aliens who have been lawfully admitted to the United States and who have resided therein continuously for five years and who return to the United States within six months from the date of their departure therefrom; all aliens in transit through the United States;<sup>11</sup> all aliens who have been lawfully admitted to the United States and who later shall go in transit from one part of the United States to another through foreign contiguous territory: *Provided*, That nothing in this Act shall exclude, if otherwise admissible, persons convicted, or who admit the commission, or who teach or advocate the commission, of an offense purely political: *Provided further*, That the provisions of this Act, relating to the payments for tickets or passage by

<sup>10</sup> For method of applying the reading test, see Rule 4.

<sup>11</sup> See Rule 9.



any corporation, association, society, municipality, or foreign Government shall not apply to the tickets or passage of aliens in immediate and continuous transit through the United States to foreign contiguous territory: *Provided further*, That skilled labor, if otherwise admissible, may be imported if labor of like kind unemployed can not be found in this country, and the question of the necessity of importing such skilled labor in any particular instance may be determined by the Secretary of Labor upon the application of any person interested, such application to be made before such importation, and such determination by the Secretary of Labor to be reached after a full hearing and an investigation into the facts of the case: *Provided further*, That the provisions of this law applicable to contract labor shall not be held to exclude professional actors, artists, lecturers, singers, nurses, ministers of any religious denomination, professors for colleges or seminaries persons belonging to any recognized learned profession, or persons employed as domestic servants.<sup>12</sup> *Provided further*, That whenever the President shall be satisfied that passports issued by any foreign government to its citizens or subjects to go to any country other than the United States, or to any insular possession of the United States or to the Canal Zone, are being used for the purpose of enabling the holder to come to the continental territory of the United States to the detriment of labor conditions therein, the President shall refuse to permit such citizens or subjects of the country issuing such passports to enter the continental territory of the United States from such other country or from such insular possession or from the Canal Zone;<sup>13</sup> *Provided further*, That aliens returning after a temporary absence to an unrelinquished United States domicile of seven consecutive years may be admitted in the discretion of the Secretary of Labor, and under such conditions as he may prescribe.<sup>14</sup> *Provided further*, That nothing in the contract-labor or reading-test provisions of this Act shall be construed to prevent, hinder, or restrict any alien exhibitor, or holder of concession or privilege for any fair or exposition authorized by Act of Congress, from bringing into the United

<sup>12</sup> See Rule 27.

<sup>13</sup> See Rule 11.

<sup>14</sup> See Subd. 1, Rule 16.

States, under contract, such otherwise admissible alien mechanics, artisans, agents, or other employees, natives of his country as may be necessary for installing or conducting his exhibit or for preparing for installing or conducting any business authorized or permitted under any concession or privilege which may have been or may be granted by any such fair or exposition in connection therewith, under such rules and regulations as the Commissioner General of Immigration, with the approval of the Secretary of Labor, may prescribe both as to the admission and return of such persons: *Provided further*, That the Commissioner General of Immigration with the approval of the Secretary of Labor shall issue rules and prescribe conditions, including exaction of such bonds as may be necessary, to control and regulate the admission and return of otherwise inadmissible aliens applying for temporary admission:<sup>15</sup> *Provided further*, That nothing in this Act shall be construed to apply to accredited officials<sup>16</sup> of foreign governments, nor to their suites, families or guests.

SEC. 4. That the importation into the United States of any alien for the purpose of prostitution, or for any other immoral purpose, is hereby forbidden; and whoever shall, directly or indirectly, import, or attempt to import into the United States any alien for the purpose of prostitution or for any other immoral purpose, or shall hold or attempt to hold any alien for any such purpose in pursuance of such illegal importation, or shall keep, maintain, control, support, employ, or harbor in any house or other place for the purpose of prostitution or for any other immoral purpose any alien, in pursuance of such illegal importation, shall in every such case be deemed guilty of a felony, and on conviction thereof shall be punished by imprisonment for a term of not more than ten years and by a fine of not more than \$5,000. Jurisdiction for the trial and punishment of the felonies hereinbefore set forth shall be in any district to or into which said alien is brought in pursuance of said importation by the person or persons accused, or in any district in which a vio-

<sup>15</sup> See Subd. 2, Rule 16; also Subd. 6, Rule 27.

<sup>16</sup> "Accredited officials" means officials of a foreign government who carry credentials showing that they are accredited by such government to represent it in this country in its official relations with the Government of the United States.



lation of any of the foregoing provisions of this section occurs. That any alien who shall, after he has been excluded and deported or arrested and deported in pursuance of the provisions of this Act which relate to prostitutes, procurers, or other like immoral persons, attempt thereafter to return to or to enter the United States shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof shall be punished by imprisonment for a term of not more than two years. In all prosecutions under this section the testimony of a husband or wife shall be admissible and competent evidence against each other.

SEC. 5. That it shall be unlawful for any persons, company, partnership, or corporation, in any manner whatsoever, to prepay the transportation or in any way to induce, assist, encourage or solicit, or attempt to induce, assist, encourage, or solicit the importation or migration of any contract laborer or contract laborers into the United States, unless such contract laborer or contract laborers are exempted under the fifth proviso of section three of this Act, or have been imported with the permission of the Secretary of Labor in accordance with the fourth proviso of said section, and for every violation of any of the provisions of this section the persons, partnership, company, or corporation violating the same shall forfeit and pay for every such offense the sum of \$1,000, which may be sued for and recovered by the United States, as debts of like amount are now recovered in the courts of the United States. For every violation of the provisions hereof the persons violating the same may be prosecuted in a criminal action for a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof shall be punished by a fine of \$1,000, or by imprisonment for a term of not less than six months nor more than two years; and under either the civil or the criminal procedure mentioned separate suits or prosecutions may be brought for each alien thus offered or promised employment as aforesaid. The Department of Justice, with the approval of the Department of Labor, may from any fines or penalties received pay rewards to persons other than Government employees who may furnish information leading to the recovery of any such penalties, or to the arrest and punishment of any persons, as in this section provided.

SEC. 6. That it shall be unlawful and be deemed a violation of section five of this Act to induce, assist, encourage, or solicit or attempt to induce, assist, encourage, or solicit any alien to come into the United States by promise of employment through advertisements printed, published, or distributed in any foreign country, whether such promise is true or false, and either the civil or criminal penalty or both imposed by said section shall be applicable to such a case.

SEC. 7. That it shall be unlawful for any person, association, society, company, partnership, corporation, or others engaged in the business of transporting aliens to or within the United States including owners, masters, officers and agents of vessels, directly or indirectly, by writing, printing, oral representation, payment of any commissions to an alien coming into the United States, allowance of any rebates to an alien coming into the United States, or otherwise to solicit, invite, or encourage or attempt to solicit, invite, or encourage any alien to come into the United States, and anyone violating any provision hereof shall be subject to either the civil or the criminal prosecution, or both, prescribed by section five of this Act; or if it shall appear to the satisfaction of the Secretary of Labor that any owner, master, officer, or agent of a vessel has brought or caused to be brought to a port of the United States any alien so solicited, invited, or encouraged to come by such owner, master, officer, or agent, such owner, master, officer, or agent shall pay to the collector of customs of the customs district in which the port of arrival is located or in which any vessel of the line may be found, the sum of \$400 for each and every such violation; and no vessel shall be granted clearance pending the determination of the question of the liability to the payment of such fine, or while the fine imposed remains unpaid, nor shall such fine be remitted or refunded:<sup>17</sup> *Provided*, That clearance may be granted prior to the determination of such questions upon the deposit with the collector of customs of a sum sufficient to cover such fine: *Provided further*, That whenever it shall be shown to the satisfaction of the Secretary of Labor that the provisions of this section are persistently violated by or on behalf of

<sup>17</sup> For method of enforcing this provision, see Rule 28.

any transportation company, it shall be the duty of said Secretary to deny to such company the privilege of landing alien immigrant passengers of any or all classes at United States ports for such a period as in his judgment may be necessary to insure an observance of such provisions: *Provided further*, That this section shall not be held to prevent transportation companies from issuing letters, circulars, or advertisements, confined strictly to stating the sailing of their vessels and terms and facilities of transportation therein: *Provided further*, That under sections five, six, and seven hereof it shall be presumed from the fact that any person, company, partnership, corporation, association, or society induces, assists, encourages solicits or invites or attempts to induce assist, encourage, solicit or invite the importation, migration or coming of an alien from a country foreign to the United States, that the offender had knowledge of such person's alienage.

SEC. 8. That any person, including the master, agent, owner, or consignee of any vessel, who shall bring into or land in the United States by vessel or otherwise, or shall attempt, by himself or through another to bring into or land in the United States by vessel or otherwise, or shall conceal or harbor, or attempt to conceal or harbor, or assist or abet another to conceal or harbor in any place, including any building, vessel, railway car, conveyance, or vehicle, any alien not duly admitted by an immigrant inspector or not lawfully entitled to enter or to reside within the United States under the terms of this Act, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction thereof shall be punished by a fine not exceeding \$2,000 and by imprisonment for a term not exceeding five years, for each and every alien so landed or brought in or attempted to be landed or brought in.

SEC. 9.<sup>18</sup> That it shall be unlawful for any person, including any transportation company other than railway lines entering the United States from foreign contiguous territory, or the owner, master, agent, or consignee of any vessel to bring to the United States either from a foreign country or any insular possession of the United States any alien af-

<sup>18</sup> For method of enforcing the provisions of this section, see Rule 28.

afflicted with idiocy, insanity, imbecility, feeble-mindedness, epilepsy, constitutional psychopathic inferiority, chronic alcoholism, tuberculosis in any form, or a loathsome or dangerous contagious disease, and if it shall appear to the satisfaction of the Secretary of Labor that any alien so brought to the United States was afflicted with any of the said diseases or disabilities at the time of foreign embarkation, and that the existence of such disease or disability might have been detected by means of a competent medical examination at such time, such person or transportation company, or the master, agent, owner, or consignee of any such vessel shall pay to the collector of customs of the customs district in which the port of arrival is located the sum of \$200, and in addition a sum equal to that paid by such alien for his transportation from the initial point of departure, indicated in his ticket, to the port of arrival for each and every violation of the provisions of this section, such latter sum to be delivered by the collector of customs to the alien on whose account assessed. It shall also be unlawful for any such person to bring to any port of the United States any alien afflicted with any mental defect other than those above specifically named, or physical defect of a nature which may affect his ability to earn a living, as contemplated in section three of this Act, and if it shall appear to the satisfaction of the Secretary of Labor that any alien so brought to the United States was so afflicted at the time of foreign embarkation, and that the existence of such mental or physical defect might have been detected by means of a competent medical examination at such time, such person shall pay to the collector of customs of the customs district in which the port of arrival is located the sum of \$25, and in addition a sum equal to that paid by such alien for his transportation from the initial point of departure, indicated in his ticket, to the port of arrival, for each and every violation of this provision, such latter sum to be delivered by the collector of customs to the alien for whose account assessed. It shall also be unlawful for any such person to bring to any port of the United States any alien who is excluded by the provisions of section three of this Act because unable to read, or who is excluded by the terms of section three of this Act as a native of that portion of the Continent of Asia and the



islands adjacent thereto described in said section, and if it shall appear to the satisfaction of the Secretary of Labor that these disabilities might have been detected by the exercise of reasonable precaution prior to the departure of such aliens from a foreign port, such person shall pay to the collector of customs of the customs district in which the port of arrival is located the sum of \$200, and in addition a sum equal to that paid by such alien for his transportation from the initial point of departure, indicated in his ticket, to the port of arrival, for each and every violation of this provision, such latter sum to be delivered by the collector of customs to the alien on whose account assessed. And no vessel shall be granted clearance papers pending the determination of the question of the liability to the payment of such fines, or while the fines remain unpaid, nor shall such fines be remitted or refunded: *Provided*, That clearance may be granted prior to the determination of such questions upon the deposit of a sum sufficient to cover such fines: *Provided further*, That nothing contained in this section shall be construed to subject transportation companies to a fine for bringing to ports of the United States aliens who are by any of the provisos or exceptions to section three hereof exempted from the excluding provisions of said section.

SEC. 10. That it shall be the duty of every person, including owners, officers, and agents of vessels or transportation lines, or international bridges or toll roads, other than railway lines which may enter into a contract as provided in section twenty-three of this Act, bringing an alien to, or providing a means for an alien to come to, any seaport or land border port of the United States, to prevent the landing of such alien in the United States at any time or place other than as designated by the immigration officers, and the failure of any such persons, owner, officer, or agent to comply with the foregoing requirements shall be deemed a misdemeanor and on conviction thereof shall be punished by a fine in each case of not less than \$200 nor more than \$1,000, or by imprisonment for a term not exceeding one year, or by both such fine and imprisonment; or, if in the opinion of the Secretary of Labor it is impracticable or inconvenient to prosecute the person, owner, master, officer, or agent of any such vessel, a penalty of \$1,000 shall be a lien upon the

vessel whose owner, master, officer, or agent violates the provision of this section, and such vessel shall be libeled therefor in the appropriate United States court.

SEC. II. That for the purpose of determining whether aliens arriving at ports of the United States belong to any of the classes excluded by this Act, either by reason of being afflicted with any of the diseases or mental or physical defects or disabilities mentioned in section three hereof, or otherwise, or whenever the Secretary of Labor has received information showing that any aliens are coming from a country or have embarked at a place where any of said diseases are prevalent or epidemic, the Commissioner General of Immigration, with the approval of the Secretary of Labor, may direct that such aliens shall be detained on board the vessel bringing them, or in a United States immigration station at the expense of such vessel, as circumstances may require or justify, a sufficient time to enable the immigration officers and medical officers stationed at such ports to subject aliens to an observation and examination sufficient to determine whether or not they belong to the said excluded classes by reason of being afflicted in the manner indicated: *Provided*, That, with a view to avoid undue delay in landing passengers or interference with commerce, the Commissioner General of Immigration may, with the approval of the Secretary of Labor, issue such regulations, not inconsistent with law, as may be deemed necessary to effect the purposes of this section: *Provided further*, That it shall be the duty of immigrant inspectors to report to the Commissioner General of Immigration the condition of all vessels bringing aliens to United States ports.<sup>19</sup>

SEC. IIA. That the Secretary of Labor is hereby authorized and directed to enter into negotiations, through the Department of State, with countries vessels of which bring aliens to the United States, with a view to detailing inspectors and matrons of the United States Immigration Service for duty on vessels carrying immigrant or emigrant passengers between foreign ports and ports of the United States. When such inspectors and matrons are detailed for said duty they shall remain in that part of the vessel where immigrant

<sup>19</sup> See Rule 29.



passengers are carried; and it shall be their duty to observe such passengers during the voyage and report to the immigration authorities in charge at the port of landing any information of value in determining the admissibility of such passengers that may have become known to them during the voyage.

SEC. 12. That upon the arrival of any alien by water at any port within the United States on the North American Continent from a foreign port or a port of the Philippine Islands, Guam, Porto Rico, or Hawaii, or at any port of the said insular possessions from any foreign port, from a port in the United States on the North American Continent, or from a port of another insular possession of the United States,<sup>20</sup> it shall be the duty of the master or commanding officer, owners, or consignees of the steamer, sailing or other vessel having said alien on board to deliver to the immigration officers at the port of arrival typewritten or printed lists or manifests made at the time and place of embarkation of such alien on board such steamer or vessel, which shall, in answer to questions at the top of said list, contain full and accurate information as to each alien as follows: Full name, age, and sex; whether married or single; calling or occupation; personal description (including height, complexion, color of hair and eyes, and marks of identification); whether able to read or write; nationality; country of birth; race; country of last permanent residence; name and address of the nearest relative in the country from which the alien came; seaport for landing in the United States; final destination, if any, beyond the port of landing; whether having a ticket through to such final destination; by whom passage was paid; whether in possession of \$50, and if less, how much; whether going to join a relative or friend, and, if so, what relative or friend, and his or her name and complete address; whether ever before in the United States, and if so, when and where; whether ever in prison or almshouse or an institution or hospital for the care and treatment of the insane; whether ever supported by charity; whether a polygamist; whether an anarchist; whether a person who believes in or advocates the overthrow by force or violence

<sup>20</sup> For procurement of manifests from Canadian transportation companies, see Rule 12.

of the Government of the United States or of all forms of law, or who disbelieves in or is opposed to organized government, or who advocates the assassination of public officials, or who advocates or teaches the unlawful destruction of property, or is a member of or affiliated with any organization entertaining and teaching disbelief in or opposition to organized government, or which teaches the unlawful destruction of property, or who advocates or teaches the duty, necessity, or propriety of the unlawful assaulting or killing of any officer or officers, either of specific individuals or of officers generally, of the Government of the United States or of any other organized government because of his or their official character; whether coming by reason of any offer, solicitation, promise, or agreement, express or implied, to perform labor in the United States; the alien's condition of health, mental and physical; whether deformed or crippled, and if so, for how long and from what cause; whether coming with the intent to return to the country whence such alien comes after temporarily engaging in laboring pursuits in the United States; and such other items of information as will aid in determining whether any such alien belongs to any of the excluded classes enumerated in section three hereof; and such master or commanding officer, owners, or consignees shall also furnish information in relation to the sex, age, class of travel, and the foreign port of embarkation of arriving passengers who are United States citizens. That it shall further be the duty of the master or commanding officer of every vessel taking passengers from any port of the United States on the North American Continent to a foreign port or a port of the Philippine Islands, Guam, Porto Rico or Hawaii or from any port of the said insular possessions to any foreign port, to a port of the United States on the North American Continent, or to a port of another insular possession of the United States to file with the immigration officials before departure a list which shall contain full and accurate information in relation to the following matters regarding all alien passengers, and all citizens of the United States or insular possessions of the United States departing with the stated intent to reside, permanently in a foreign country, taken on board: Name, age, and sex; whether married or single; calling or occupa-

tion; whether able to read or write; nationality; country of birth; country of which citizen or subject; race; last permanent residence in the United States or insular possessions thereof; if a citizen of the United States or of the insular possessions thereof, whether native born or naturalized; if native born, the place and date of birth, or if naturalized the city or town in which naturalization has been had; intended future permanent residence; and time and port of last arrival in the United States, or insular possessions thereof; and such master or commanding officer shall also furnish information in relation to the sex, age, class of travel, and port or debarkation of the United States citizens departing who do not intend to reside permanently in a foreign country, and no master of any such vessel shall be granted clearance papers for his vessel until he has deposited such list or lists with the immigration officials at the port of departure and made oath that they are full and complete as to the name and other information herein required concerning each person of the classes specified taken on board his vessel; and any neglect or omission to comply with the requirements of this section shall be punishable as provided in section fourteen of this Act: *Provided*, That in the case of vessels making regular trips to ports of the United States the Commissioner General of Immigration, with the approval of the Secretary of Labor, may, when expedient, arrange for the delivery of such lists of outgoing aliens at a later date: *Provided further*, That it shall be the duty of immigration officials to record the following information regarding every resident alien and citizen leaving the United States by way of the Canadian or Mexican borders for permanent residence in a foreign country: Name, age, and sex; whether married or single; calling or occupation; whether able to read or write; nationality; country of birth; country of which citizen or subject; race; last permanent residence in the United States; intended future permanent residence; and time and port of last arrival in the United States; and if a United States citizen, whether native born or naturalized.

SEC. 13. That all aliens arriving by water at the ports of the United States shall be listed in convenient groups, the names of those coming from the same locality to be assem-

bled so far as practicable, and no one list or manifest shall contain more than thirty names. To each alien or head of a family shall be given a ticket on which shall be written his name, a number or letter designating the list in which his name, and other items of information required by this Act, are contained, and his number on said list, for convenience of identification on arrival. Each list or manifest shall be verified by the signature and the oath or affirmation of the master or commanding officer, or the first or second below him in command, taken before an immigration officer at the port of arrival, to the effect that he has caused the surgeon of said vessel sailing therewith to make a physical and mental examination of each of said aliens, and that from the report of said surgeon and from his own investigation he believes that no one of said aliens is of any of the classes excluded from admission into the United States by section three of this Act, and that also according to the best of his knowledge and belief the information in said lists or manifests concerning each of said aliens named therein is correct and true in every respect. That the surgeon of said vessel sailing therewith shall also sign each of said lists or manifests and make oath or affirmation in like manner before an immigration officer at the port of arrival, stating his professional experience and qualifications as a physician and surgeon, and that he has made a personal examination of each of the said aliens named therein, and that the said list or manifest, according to the best of his knowledge and belief, is full, correct, and true in all particulars relative to the mental and physical condition of said aliens. If no surgeon sails with any vessel bringing aliens, the mental and physical examinations and the verifications of the lists or manifests shall be made by some competent surgeon employed by the owners of the said vessels, and the manifests shall be verified by such surgeon before a United States consular officer or other officer authorized to administer oaths: *Provided*, That if any changes in the condition of such aliens occur or develop during the voyage of the vessel on which they are traveling, such changes shall be noted on the manifest before the verification thereof.<sup>21</sup>

<sup>21</sup> See Rule 2.



SEC. 14.<sup>22</sup> That it shall be unlawful for the master or commanding officer of any vessel bringing aliens into or carrying aliens out of the United States to refuse or fail to deliver to the immigration officials the accurate and full manifests or statements or information regarding all aliens on board or taken on board such vessel required by this Act, and if it shall appear to the satisfaction of the Secretary of Labor that there has been such a refusal or failure, or that the lists delivered are not accurate and full, such master or commanding officer shall pay to the collector of customs at the port of arrival or departure the sum of \$10 for each alien concerning whom such accurate and full manifest or statement or information is not furnished, or concerning whom the manifest or statement or information is not prepared and sworn to as prescribed by this Act. No vessel shall be granted clearance pending the determination of the question of the liability to the payment of such fine, or while it remains unpaid, nor shall such fine be remitted or refunded: *Provided*, That clearance may be granted prior to the determination of such question upon the deposit with the collector of customs of a sum sufficient to cover such fine.

SEC. 15. That upon the arrival at a port of the United States of any vessel bringing aliens it shall be the duty of the proper immigration officials to go or to send competent assistants to the vessel and there inspect all such aliens, or said immigration officials may order a temporary removal of such aliens for examination at a designated time and place, but such temporary removal shall not be considered a landing, nor shall it relieve vessels, the transportation lines, masters, agents, owners, or consignees of the vessel upon which said aliens are brought to any port of the United States from any of the obligations which, in case such aliens remain on board, would under the provisions of this Act bind the said vessels, transportation lines, masters, agents, owners, or consignees: *Provided* That where removal is made to premises owned or controlled by the United States, said vessels, transportation lines, masters, agents, owners, or consignees, and each of them, shall, so long as detention there lasts, be relieved of responsibility for the safekeeping of

<sup>22</sup> For method of enforcing this section, see Rule 28.

such aliens. Whenever a temporary removal of aliens is made the vessels or transportation lines which brought them and the masters, owners, agents, and consignees of the vessel upon which they arrive shall pay all expenses of such removal and all expenses arising during subsequent detention, pending decision on the aliens' eligibility to enter the United States and until they are either allowed to land or returned to the care of the line or to the vessel which brought them, such expenses to include those of maintenance, medical treatment in hospital or elsewhere, burial in the event of death, and transfer to the vessel in the event of deportation, excepting only where they arise under the terms of any of the provisos of section eighteen hereof. Any refusal or failure to comply with the provisions hereof shall be punished in the manner specified in section eighteen of this Act.<sup>23</sup>

SEC. 16. That the physical and mental examination of all arriving aliens shall be made by medical officers of the United States Public Health Service who shall have had at least two years' experience in the practise of their profession since receiving the degree of doctor of medicine, and who shall conduct all medical examinations and shall certify, for the information of the immigration officers and the boards of special inquiry hereinafter provided for, any and all physical and mental defects or diseases observed by said medical officers in any such alien; or, should medical officers of the United States Public Health Service be not available, civil surgeons of not less than four years' professional experience may be employed in such emergency for such service upon such terms as may be prescribed by the Commissioner General of Immigration, under the direction or with the approval of the Secretary of Labor. All aliens arriving at ports of the United States shall be examined by not less than two such medical officers at the discretion of the Secretary of Labor, and under such administrative regulations as he may prescribe and under medical regulations prepared by the Surgeon General of the United States Public Health Service. Medical officers of the United States Public Health Service who have had especial training in the diagnosis of insanity and mental defects shall be detailed for duty or

<sup>23</sup> For method of enforcing, see Rule 28.



employed at all ports of entry designated by the Secretary of Labor, and such medical officers shall be provided with suitable facilities for the detention and examination of all arriving aliens in whom insanity or mental defect is suspected, and the services of interpreters shall be provided for such examination. Any alien certified for insanity or mental defect may appeal to the board of medical officers of the United States Public Health Service, which shall be convened by the Surgeon General of the United States Public Health Service, and said alien may introduce before such board one expert medical witness at his own cost and expense. That the inspection, other than the physical and mental examination, of aliens, including those seeking admission or readmission to or the privilege of passing through or residing in the United States, and the examination of aliens arrested within the United States under this Act, shall be conducted by immigrant inspectors, except as hereinafter provided in regard to boards of special inquiry. All aliens arriving at ports of the United States shall be examined by at least two immigrant inspectors at the discretion of the Secretary of Labor and under such regulations as he may prescribe.<sup>24</sup> Immigrant inspectors are hereby authorized and empowered to board and search for aliens any vessel, railway car, or any other conveyance, or vehicle in which they believe aliens are being brought into the United States. Said inspectors shall have power to administer oaths<sup>25</sup> and to take and consider evidence touching the right of any alien to enter, reenter, pass through, or reside in the United States, and, where such action may be necessary, to make a written record of such evidence; and any person to whom such an oath has been administered, under the provisions of this Act, who shall knowingly or willfully give false evidence or swear to any false statement in any way affecting or in relation to the right of any alien to admission, or readmission to, or to pass through, or to reside in the United States shall be deemed guilty of perjury and be punished as provided by section one hundred

<sup>24</sup> See Subd. 1, Rule 3.

<sup>25</sup> When such officials are detailed to investigate frauds or attempts to defraud the Government, or any irregularity or misconduct of any officer or agent of the United States, sec. 183, R. S., as amended by the act approved Feb. 13, 1911 (39 Stat., 898), should be relied upon for authority to administer oaths to witnesses.

and twenty-five of the Act approved March fourth, nineteen hundred and nine, entitled "An Act to codify, revise, and amend the penal laws of the United States." All aliens coming to the United States shall be required to state under oath the purposes for which they come, the length of time they intend to remain in the United States, whether or not they intend to abide in the United States permanently and become citizens thereof, and such other items of information regarding themselves as will aid the immigration officials in determining whether they belong to any of the excluded classes enumerated in section three hereof. Any commissioner of immigration or inspector in charge shall also have power to require by subpoena the attendance and testimony of witnesses before said inspectors and the production of books, papers, and documents touching the right of any alien to enter, reenter, reside in, or pass through the United States, and to that end may invoke the aid of any court of the United States; and any district court within the jurisdiction of which investigations are being conducted by an immigrant inspector may in the event of neglect or refusal to respond to a subpoena issued by any commissioner of immigration or inspector in charge or refusal to testify before said immigrant inspector, issue an order requiring such person to appear before said immigrant inspector, produce books, papers, and documents if demanded, and testify; and any failure to obey such order of the court may be punished by the court as a contempt thereof.<sup>26</sup> That any person, including employees, officials, or agents of transportation companies, who shall assault, resist, prevent, impede or interfere with any immigration official or employee in the performance of his duty under this Act shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor and on conviction thereof shall be punished by imprisonment for a term of not more than one year, or by a fine of not more than \$2,000, or both; and any person who shall use any deadly or dangerous weapon in resisting any immigration official or employee in the performance of his duty shall be deemed guilty of a felony and shall, on conviction thereof, be punished by imprisonment for not more than ten years. Every alien who may not appear to the examin-

<sup>26</sup> See Rule 24.

ing immigrant inspector at the port of arrival to be clearly and beyond doubt entitled to land shall be detained for examination in relation thereto by a board of special inquiry. In the event of rejection by the board of special inquiry, in all cases where an appeal to the Secretary of Labor is permitted by this Act, the alien shall be so informed and shall have the right to be represented by counsel or other adviser on such appeal. The decision of an immigrant inspector, if favorable to the admission of any alien, shall be subject to challenge by any other immigrant inspector, and such challenge shall operate to take the alien whose right to land is so challenged before a board of special inquiry for its investigation.

SEC. 17.<sup>27</sup> That boards of special inquiry shall be appointed by the commissioner of immigration or inspector in charge at the various ports of arrival as may be necessary for the prompt determination of all cases of immigrants detained at such ports under the provisions of the law. Each board shall consist of three members, who shall be selected from such of the immigrant officials in the service as the Commissioner General of Immigration, with the approval of the Secretary of Labor, shall from time to time designate as qualified to serve on such boards. When in the opinion of the Secretary of Labor the maintenance of a permanent board of special inquiry for service at any sea or land border port is not warranted, regularly constituted boards may be detailed from other stations for temporary service at such port, or, if that be impracticable, the Secretary of Labor shall authorize the creation of boards of special inquiry by the immigration officials in charge at such ports, and shall determine what Government officials or other persons shall be eligible for service on such boards. Such boards shall have authority to determine whether an alien who has been duly held shall be allowed to land or shall be deported. All hearings before such boards shall be separate and apart from the public, but the immigrant may have one friend or relative present under such regulations as may be prescribed by the Secretary of Labor. Such boards shall keep a complete permanent record of their proceedings and

<sup>27</sup> For detailed provisions regarding boards, see Rule 15.

of all such testimony as may be produced before them; and the decisions of any two members of the board shall prevail, but either the alien or any dissenting member of the said board may appeal through the commissioner of immigration at the port of arrival and the Commissioner General of Immigration to the Secretary of Labor, and the taking of such appeal shall operate to stay any action in regard to the final disposal of any alien whose case is so appealed until the receipt by the commissioner of immigration at the port of arrival of such decision which shall be rendered solely upon the evidence adduced before the board of special inquiry.<sup>28</sup> In every case where an alien is excluded from admission into the United States, under any law or treaty now existing or hereafter made, the decision of a board of special inquiry adverse to the admission of such alien shall be final, unless reversed on appeal to the Secretary of Labor: *Provided*, That the decision of a board of special inquiry shall be based upon the certificate of the examining medical officer and, except as provided in section twenty-one hereof, shall be final as to the rejection of aliens affected with tuberculosis in any form or with a loathsome or dangerous contagious disease, or with any mental or physical disability which would bring such aliens within any of the classes excluded from admission to the United States under section three of this Act.

SEC. 18. That all aliens brought to this country in violation of law shall be immediately sent back, in accommodations of the same class in which they arrived, to the country whence they respectively came, on the vessels bringing them, unless in the opinion of the Secretary of Labor immediate deportation is not practicable or proper. The cost of their maintenance while on land, as well as the expense of the return of such aliens, shall be borne by the owner or owners of the vessels on which they respectively came. That it shall be unlawful for any master, purser, person in charge, agent, owner, or consignee of any such vessel to refuse to receive back on board thereof, or on board of any other vessel owned or operated by the same interests, such aliens; or to fail to detain them thereon; or to refuse or fail to return them in the manner aforesaid to the foreign port

<sup>28</sup> For procedure under this provision, see Rule 17.

from which they came; or to fail to pay the cost of their maintenance while on land; or to make any charge for the return of any such alien, or to take any security for the payment of such charge; or to take any consideration to be returned in case the alien is landed; or knowingly to bring to the United States at any time within one year from the date of deportation any alien rejected or arrested and deported under any provision of this Act, unless prior to re-embarkation the Secretary of Labor has consented that such alien shall reapply for admission, as required by section three hereof; and if it shall appear to the satisfaction of the Secretary of Labor that such master, purser, person in charge, agent, owner, or consignee has violated any of the foregoing provisions, or any of the provisions of section fifteen hereof, such master, purser, person in charge, agent, owner or consignee shall pay to the collector of customs of the district in which the port of arrival is located or in which any vessel of the line may be found, the sum of \$300 for each and every violation of any provision of said sections; and no vessel shall have clearance from any port of the United States while any such fine is unpaid, nor shall such fine be remitted or refunded:<sup>29</sup> *Provided*, That clearance may be granted prior to the determination of such question upon the deposit with the collector of customs of a sum sufficient to cover such fine. If the vessel by which any alien ordered deported came has left the United States and it is impracticable for any reason to deport the alien within a reasonable time by another vessel owned by the same interests, the cost of deportation may be paid by the Government and recovered by civil suit from any agent, owner, or consignee of the vessel: *Provided further*, That the Commissioner General of Immigration, with the approval of the Secretary of Labor, may suspend, upon conditions to be prescribed by the Commissioner General of Immigration, the deportation of any aliens found to have come in violation of any provision of this Act if, in his judgment, the testimony of such alien is necessary on behalf of the United States Government in the prosecution of offenders against any provision of this Act or other laws of the United

<sup>29</sup> For method of enforcing, see Rule 28.



States;<sup>30</sup> and the cost of maintenance of any person so detained resulting from such suspension of deportation, and a witness fee in the sum of \$1 per day for each day such person is so detained, may be paid from the appropriation for the enforcement of this Act, or such alien may be released under bond, in the penalty of not less than \$500, with security approved by the Secretary of Labor, conditioned that such alien shall be produced when required as a witness and for deportation. No alien certified, as provided in section sixteen of this Act, to be suffering from tuberculosis in any form, or from a loathsome or dangerous contagious disease other than one of quarantinable nature, shall be permitted to land for medical treatment thereof in any hospital in the United States, unless the Secretary of Labor is satisfied that to refuse treatment would be inhumane or cause unusual hardship or suffering, in which case the alien shall be treated in the hospital under the supervision of the immigration officials at the expense of the vessel transporting him:<sup>31</sup> *Provided further*, That upon the certificate of an examining medical officer to the effect that the health or safety of an insane alien would be unduly imperiled by immediate deportation, such alien may, at the expense of the appropriation for the enforcement of this Act, be held for treatment until such time as such alien may, in the opinion of such medical officer, be safely deported: *Provided further*, That upon the certificate of an examining medical officer to the effect that a rejected alien is helpless from sickness, mental or physical disability, or infancy, if such alien is accompanied by another alien whose protection or guardianship is required by such rejected alien, such accompanying alien may also be excluded, and the master, agent, owner, or consignee of the vessel in which such alien and accompanying alien are brought shall be required to return said alien and accompanying alien in the same manner as vessels are required to return other rejected aliens.<sup>32</sup>

SEC. 19.<sup>33</sup> That at any time within five years after entry, any alien who at the time of entry was a member of one or

<sup>30</sup> See Rule 25.

<sup>31</sup> See Rule 19.

<sup>32</sup> See Rule 5.

<sup>33</sup> For method of enforcing, see Rule 22.



more of the classes excluded by law; any alien who shall have entered or who shall be found in the United States in violation of this Act, or in violation of any other law of the United States;<sup>34</sup> any alien who at any time after entry shall be found advocating or teaching the unlawful destruction of property, or advocating or teaching anarchy, or the overthrow by force or violence of the Government of the United States or of all forms of law or the assassination of public officials; any alien who within five years after entry becomes a public charge from causes not affirmatively shown to have arisen subsequent to landing; except as hereinafter provided, any alien who is hereafter sentenced to imprisonment for a term of one year or more because of conviction in this country of a crime involving moral turpitude, committed within five years after the entry of the alien to the United States, or who is hereafter sentenced more than once to such a term of imprisonment because of conviction in this country of any crime involving moral turpitude, committed at any time after entry; any alien who shall be found an inmate of or connected with the management of a house of prostitution or practising prostitution after such alien shall have entered the United States, or who shall receive, share in, or derive benefit from any part of the earnings of any prostitute; any alien who manages or is employed by, in, or in connection with any house of prostitution or music or dance hall or other place of amusement or resort habitually frequented by prostitutes, or where prostitutes gather, or who in any way assists any prostitute or protects or promises to protect from arrest any prostitute; any alien who shall import or attempt to import any person for the purpose of prostitution or for any other immoral purpose; any alien who, after being excluded and deported or arrested and deported as a prostitute, or as a procurer, or as having been connected with the business of prostitution or importation for prostitution or other immoral purposes in any of the ways hereinbefore specified, shall return to and enter the United States; any alien convicted and imprisoned for a violation of any of the provisions of section four hereof;

<sup>34</sup> The latter part of this provision relates to Chinese entering or found in the United States in violation of the Chinese-exclusion laws. (S. Rep. 352, 64th Cong., 1st sess.)

any alien who was convicted, or who admits the commission, prior to entry, of a felony or other crime or misdemeanor involving moral turpitude; at any time within three years after entry, any alien who shall have entered the United States by water at any time or place other than as designated by immigration officials, or by land at any place other than one designated as a port of entry for aliens by the Commissioner General of Immigration, or at any time not designated by immigration officials, or who enters without inspection, shall, upon the warrant of the Secretary of Labor, be taken into custody and deported: *Provided*, That the marriage to an American citizen of a female of the sexually immoral classes the exclusion or deportation of which is prescribed by this Act shall not invest such female with United States citizenship if the marriage of such alien female shall be solemnized after her arrest or after the commission of acts which make her liable to deportation under this Act: *Provided further*, That the provision of this section respecting the deportation of aliens convicted of a crime involving moral turpitude shall not apply to one who has been pardoned, nor shall such deportation be made or directed if the court, or judge thereof, sentencing such alien for such crime shall, at the time of imposing judgment or passing sentence or within thirty days thereafter, due notice having first been given to representatives of the State, make a recommendation to the Secretary of Labor that such alien shall not be deported in pursuance of this Act; nor shall any alien convicted as aforesaid be deported until after the termination of his imprisonment: *Provided further*, That the provisions of this section, with the exceptions hereinbefore noted, shall be applicable to the classes of aliens therein mentioned irrespective of the time of their entry into the United States: *Provided further*, That the provisions of this section shall also apply to the cases of aliens who come to the mainland of the United States from the insular possessions thereof; *Provided further*, That any person who shall be arrested under the provisions of this section, on the ground that he has entered or been found in the United States in violation of any other law thereof which imposes on such person the burden of proving his right to enter or remain, and who shall fail to establish the existence of the right claimed,

shall be deported to the place specified in such other law.<sup>85</sup> In every case where any person is ordered deported from the United States under the provisions of this Act, or of any law or treaty, the decision of the Secretary of Labor shall be final.

SEC. 20. That the deportation of aliens provided for in this Act shall, at the option of the Secretary of Labor, be to the country whence they came or to the foreign port at which such aliens embarked for the United States; or if such embarkation was for foreign contiguous territory, to the foreign port at which they embarked for such territory; or, if such aliens entered foreign contiguous territory from the United States and later entered the United States, or if such aliens are held by the country from which they entered the United States not to be subjects or citizens of such country, and such country refuses to permit their reentry, or imposes any condition upon permitting reentry, then to the country of which such aliens are subjects or citizens, or to the country in which they resided prior to entering the country from which they entered the United States. If deportation proceedings are instituted at any time within five years after the entry of the alien, such deportation, including one-half of the entire cost of removal to the port of deportation, shall be at the expense of the contractor, procurer, or other person by whom the alien was unlawfully induced to enter the United States, or, if that can not be done, then the cost of removal to the port of deportation shall be at the expense of the appropriation for the enforcement of this Act, and the deportation from such port shall be at the expense of the owner or owners of such vessels or transportation line by which such aliens respectively came, or, if that is not practicable, at the expense of the appropriation for the enforcement of this Act. If deportation proceedings are instituted later than five years after the entry of the alien, or, if the deportation is made by reason of causes arising subsequent to entry, the cost thereof shall be payable from the appropriation for the enforcement of this Act. A failure or refusal on the part of the masters, agents, owners, or

<sup>85</sup> This provision relates to Chinese entering or found in the United States in violation of the Chinese-exclusion laws. (S. Rep. 352, 64th Cong., 1st sess.)

consignees of vessels to comply with the order of the Secretary of Labor to take on board, guard safely, and transport to the destination specified any alien ordered to be deported under the provisions of this Act shall be punished by the imposition of the penalties prescribed in section eighteen of this Act:<sup>36</sup> *Provided*, That when in the opinion of the Secretary of Labor the mental or physical condition of such alien is such as to require personal care and attendance, the said Secretary shall when necessary employ a suitable person for that purpose, who shall accompany such alien to his or her final destination, and the expense incident to such service shall be defrayed in the same manner as the expenses of deporting the accompanied alien is defrayed.<sup>37</sup> Pending the final disposal of the case of any alien so taken into custody, he may be released under a bond in the penalty of not less than \$500 with security approved by the Secretary of Labor, conditioned that such alien shall be produced when required for a hearing or hearings in regard to the charge upon which he has been taken into custody, and for deportation if he shall be found to be unlawfully within the United States.

SEC. 21.<sup>38</sup> That any alien liable to be excluded because likely to become a public charge or because of physical disability other than tuberculosis in any form or a loathsome or dangerous contagious disease may, if otherwise admissible, nevertheless be admitted in the discretion of the Secretary of Labor upon the giving of a suitable and proper bond or undertaking, approved by said Secretary, in such amount and containing such conditions as he may prescribe, to the United States and to all States, Territories, counties, towns, municipalities, and districts thereof, holding the United States and all States Territories, counties, towns, municipalities and districts thereof harmless against such alien becoming a public charge. In lieu of such bond, such alien may deposit in cash with the Secretary of Labor such amount as the Secretary of Labor may require, which amount shall be deposited by said Secretary in the United States Postal Savings Bank, a receipt therefor to be given the person furnishing said sum, showing the fact and object

<sup>36</sup> See Rule 28.

<sup>37</sup> See Rule 23.

<sup>38</sup> For method of enforcing provisions of this section, see Rule 17.

of its receipt and such other information as said Secretary may deem advisable. All accruing interest on said deposit during the time same shall be held in the United States Postal Savings Bank shall be paid to the person furnishing the sum for deposit. In the event of such alien becoming a public charge, the Secretary of Labor shall dispose of said deposit in the same manner as if same had been collected under a bond as provided in this section. In the event of the permanent departure from the United States, the naturalization, or the death of such alien, the said sum shall be returned to the person by whom furnished, or to his legal representatives. The admission of such alien shall be a consideration for the giving of such bond, undertaking, or cash deposit. Suit may be brought thereon in the name and by the proper law officers either of the United States Government or of any State, Territory, District, county, town, or municipality in which such alien becomes a public charge.

SEC. 22.<sup>39</sup> That whenever an alien shall have been naturalized or shall have taken up his permanent residence in this country, and thereafter shall send for his wife or minor children to join him, and said wife or any of said minor children shall be found to be affected with any contagious disorder, such wife or minor children shall be held, under such regulations as the Secretary of Labor shall prescribe, until it shall be determined whether the disorder will be easily curable or whether they can be permitted to land without danger to other persons; and they shall not be either admitted or deported until such facts have been ascertained; and if it shall be determined that the disorder is easily curable and the husband or father or other responsible person is willing to bear the expense of the treatment, they may be accorded treatment in hospital until cured and then be admitted, or if it shall be determined that they can be permitted to land without danger to other persons, they may, if otherwise admissible, thereupon be admitted: *Provided*, That if the person sending for wife or minor children is naturalized, a wife to whom married or a minor child born subsequent to such husband or father's naturalization shall be admitted without detention for treatment in hospital, and with respect to a wife to whom married or a minor child born prior to

<sup>39</sup> For method of enforcing, see Rule 19.



such husband or father's naturalization the provisions of this section shall be observed, even though such person is unable to pay the expense of treatment, in which case the expense shall be paid from the appropriation for the enforcement of this Act.

SEC. 23. That the Commissioner General of Immigration shall perform all his duties under the direction of the Secretary of Labor. Under such direction he shall have charge of the administration of all laws relating to the immigration of aliens into the United States, and shall have the control, direction, and supervision of all officers, clerks, and employees appointed thereunder; he shall establish such rules and regulations, prescribe such forms of bond, reports, entries, and other papers, and shall issue from time to time such instructions not inconsistent with law, as he shall deem best calculated for carrying out the provisions of this Act and for protecting the United States and aliens migrating thereto from fraud and loss, and shall have authority to enter into contract for the support and relief of such aliens as may fall into distress or need public aid, and to remove to their native country, at any time within three years after entry, at the expense of the appropriations for the enforcement of this Act, such as fall into distress or need public aid from causes arising subsequent to their entry and are desirous of being so removed; he shall prescribe rules for the entry and inspection of aliens coming to the United States from or through Canada and Mexico, so as not unnecessarily to delay, impede, or annoy persons in ordinary travel between the United States and said countries, and shall have power to enter into contracts with transportation lines for the said purpose.<sup>40</sup> It shall be the duty of the Commissioner General of Immigration to detail officers of the Immigration Service from time to time as may be necessary, in his judgment, to secure information as to the number of aliens detained in the penal, reformatory, and charitable institutions (public and private) of the several States and Territories, the District of Columbia, and other territory of the United States, and to inform the officers of such institutions of the provisions of law in relation to the deportation of aliens who have become public charges. He may, with the approval

<sup>40</sup> See Rules 12 and 13.



of the Secretary of Labor, whenever in his judgment such action may be necessary to accomplish the purposes of this Act, detail immigration officers for service in foreign countries; and, upon his request, approved by the Secretary of Labor, the Secretary of the Treasury may detail medical officers of the United States Public Health Service for the performance of duties in foreign countries in connection with the enforcement of this Act. The duties of commissioners of immigration and other immigration officials in charge of districts, ports, or stations shall be of an administrative character, to be prescribed in detail by regulations prepared under the direction or with the approval of the Secretary of Labor: *Provided*, That no person, company, or transportation line engaged in carrying alien passengers for hire from Canada or Mexico to the United States, whether by land or water, shall be allowed to land any such passengers in the United States without providing suitable and approved landing stations, conveniently located, at the point or points of entry. The Commissioner General of Immigration is hereby authorized and empowered to prescribe the conditions, not inconsistent with law, under which the above-mentioned landing stations shall be deemed suitable within the meaning of this section. Any person, company, or transportation line landing an alien passenger in the United States without compliance with the requirement herein set forth shall be deemed to have violated section eight of this Act, and upon conviction shall be subject to the penalty therein prescribed: *Provided further*, That for the purpose of making effective the provisions of this section relating to the protection of aliens from fraud and loss, and also the provisions of section thirty of this Act, relating to the distribution of aliens, the Secretary of Labor shall establish and maintain immigrant stations at such interior places as may be necessary, and, in the discretion of the said Secretary, aliens in transit from ports of landing to such interior stations shall be accompanied by immigrant inspectors: *Provided further*, That in prescribing rules and making contracts for the entry and inspection of aliens applying for admission from or through foreign contiguous territory, due care shall be exercised to avoid any discriminatory action in favor of foreign transportation companies

transporting to such territory aliens destined to the United States, and all such transportation companies shall be required, as a condition precedent to the inspection or examination under such rules and contracts at the ports of such contiguous territory of aliens brought thereto by them, to submit to and comply with all the requirements of this Act which would apply were they bringing such aliens directly to seaports of the United States, and, from and after the taking effect of this Act, no alien applying for admission from foreign contiguous territory shall be permitted to enter the United States unless upon proving that he was brought to such territory by a transportation company which had submitted to and complied with all the requirements of this Act, or that he entered, or has resided in, such territory more than two years prior to the date of his application for admission to the United States.

SEC. 24. That immigrant inspectors and other immigration officers, clerks, and employees shall hereafter be appointed and their compensation fixed and raised or decreased from time to time by the Secretary of Labor, upon the recommendation of the Commissioner General of Immigration and in accordance with the provisions of the civil-service Act of January sixteenth, eighteen hundred and eighty-three: *Provided*, That said Secretary, in the enforcement of that portion of this Act which excludes contract laborers and induced and assisted immigrants, may employ, for such purposes and for detail upon additional service under this Act when not so engaged, without reference to the provisions of the said civil-service Act, or to the various Acts relative to the compilation of the Official Register, such persons as he may deem advisable and from time to time fix, raise, or decrease their compensation. He may draw annually from the appropriation for the enforcement of this Act \$100,000, or as much thereof as may be necessary, to be expended for the salaries and expenses of persons so employed and for expenses incident to such employment; and the accounting officers of the Treasury shall pass to the credit of the proper disbursing officer expenditures from said sum without itemized account whenever the Secretary of Labor certifies that an itemized account would not be for the best interests of the Government: *Provided further*, That noth-

ing herein contained shall be construed to alter the mode of appointing commissioners of immigration at the several ports of the United States as provided by the sundry civil appropriation Act approved August eighteenth, eighteen hundred and ninety-four, or the official status of such commissioners heretofore appointed.

SEC. 25. That the district courts of the United States are hereby invested with full jurisdiction of all causes, civil and criminal, arising under any of the provisions of this Act. That it shall be the duty of the United States district attorney of the proper district to prosecute every such suit when brought by the United States under this Act. Such prosecutions or suits may be instituted at any place in the United States at which the violation may occur or at which the person charged with such violation may be found. That no suit or proceeding for a violation of the provisions of this Act shall be settled, compromised, or discontinued without the consent of the court in which it is pending, entered of record, with the reasons therefor.

SEC. 26. That all exclusive privileges of exchanging money, transporting passengers or baggage, or keeping eating houses, and all other like privileges in connection with any United States immigrant station, shall be disposed of to the lowest responsible and capable bidder, after public competition, notice of such competitive bidding having been made in two newspapers of general circulation for a period of two weeks, subject to such conditions and limitations as the Commissioner General of Immigration, under the direction or with the approval of the Secretary of Labor, may prescribe, and all receipts accruing from the disposal of privileges shall be paid into the Treasury of the United States. No such contract shall be awarded to an alien. No intoxicating liquors shall be sold at any such immigration station.

SEC. 27. That for the preservation of the peace and in order that arrests may be made for crimes under the laws of the States and Territories of the United States where the various immigrant stations are located, the officers in charge of such stations, as occasion may require, shall admit therein the proper State and municipal officers charged with the en-

forcement of such laws, and for the purpose of this section the jurisdiction of such officers and of local courts shall extend over such stations.

SEC. 28. That any person who knowingly aids or assists any anarchist or any person who believes in or advocates the overthrow by force or violence of the Government of the United States, or who disbelieves in or is opposed to organized government, or all forms of law, or who advocates the assassination of public officials, or who is a member of or affiliated with any organization entertaining or teaching disbelief in or opposition to organized government, or who advocates or teaches the duty, necessity, or propriety of the unlawful assaulting or killing of any officer or officers, either of specific individuals or of officers generally, of the Government of the United States or of any other organized government, because of his or their official character, to enter the United States, or who connives or conspires with any person or persons to allow, procure, or permit any such anarchist or person aforesaid to enter therein, shall be deemed guilty of a felony, and on conviction thereof shall be punished by a fine of not more than \$5,000 or by imprisonment for not more than five years, or both.

Any person who knowingly aids or assists any alien who advocates or teaches the unlawful destruction of property to enter the United States shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor and on conviction thereof shall be punished by a fine of not more than \$1,000, or by imprisonment for not more than six months, or by both such fine and imprisonment.

SEC. 29. That the President of the United States is authorized, in the name of the Government of the United States, to call, in his discretion, an international conference, to assemble at such point as may be agreed upon or to send special commissioners to any foreign country, for the purpose of regulating by international agreement, subject to the advice and consent of the Senate of the United States, the immigration of aliens to the United States; of providing for the mental, moral, and physical examination of such aliens by American consuls or other officers of the United States Government at the ports of embarkation, or elsewhere; of securing the assistance of foreign governments in their own territories to prevent the evasion of the laws of the United States governing immigration to the United States; of enter-

ing into such international agreements as may be proper to prevent the immigration of aliens who, under the laws of the United States, are or may be excluded from entering the United States, and of regulating any matters pertaining to such immigration.

SEC. 30. That there shall be maintained a division of information in the Bureau of Immigration; and the Secretary of Labor shall provide such clerical and other assistance as may be necessary. It shall be the duty of said division to promote a beneficial distribution of aliens admitted into the United States among the several States and Territories desiring immigration. Correspondence shall be had with the proper officials of the States and Territories, and said division shall gather from all available sources useful information regarding the resources, products, and physical characteristics of each State and Territory, and shall publish such information in different languages and distribute the publications among all admitted aliens at the immigrant stations of the United States and to such other persons as may desire the same. When any State or Territory appoints and maintains an agent or agents to represent it at any of the immigrant stations of the United States, such agents shall, under regulations prescribed by the Commissioner-General of Immigration, subject to the approval of the Secretary of Labor, have access to aliens who have been admitted to the United States for the purpose of presenting, either orally or in writing, the special inducements offered by such State or Territory to aliens to settle therein. While on duty at any immigrant station such agents shall be subject to all the regulations prescribed by the Commissioner-General of Immigration, who, with the approval of the Secretary of Labor, may, for violation of any such regulations, deny to the agent guilty of such violation any of the privileges herein granted.

SEC. 31.<sup>41</sup> That any persons, including the owner, agent, consignee, or master of any vessel arriving in the United States from any foreign port or place, who shall knowingly sign on the ship's articles, or bring to the United States as one of the crew of such vessel, any alien, with intent to permit such alien to land in the United States in violation of

<sup>41</sup> For method of enforcing Secs. 31 to 36, see Rule 10.



the laws and treaties of the United States regulating the immigration of aliens, or who shall falsely and knowingly represent to the immigration authorities at the port of arrival that any such alien is a bona fide member of the crew, shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding \$5,000, for which sum the said vessel shall be liable and may be seized and proceeded against by way of libel in any district court of the United States having jurisdiction of the offense.

SEC. 32. That no alien excluded from admission to the United States by any law, convention, or treaty of the United States regulating the immigration of aliens, and employed on board any vessel arriving in the United States from any foreign port or place, shall be permitted to land in the United States, except temporarily for medical treatment, or pursuant to regulations prescribed by the Secretary of Labor providing for the ultimate removal or deportation of such alien from the United States, and the negligent failure of the owner, agent, consignee, or master of such vessel to detain on board any such alien after notice in writing by the immigration officer in charge at the port of arrival, and to deport such alien, if required by such immigration officer or by the Secretary of Labor, shall render such owner, agent, consignee, or master liable to a penalty not exceeding \$1,000, for which sum the said vessel shall be liable, and may be seized and proceeded against by way of libel in any district court of the United States having jurisdiction of the offense.

SEC. 33. That it shall be unlawful and be deemed a violation of the preceding section to pay off or discharge any alien employed on board any vessel arriving in the United States from any foreign port or place, unless duly admitted pursuant to the laws and treaties of the United States regulating the immigration of aliens: *Provided*, That in case any such alien intends to reship on board any other vessel bound to any foreign port or place, he shall be allowed to land for the purpose of so reshipping, under such regulations as the Secretary of Labor may prescribe to prevent aliens not admissible under any law, convention, or treaty from remaining permanently in the United States, and may be paid off, discharged, and permitted to remove his effects, anything in such laws or treaties or in this Act to the contrary notwithstanding, provided due notice of such proposed action be



given by the master or the seaman himself to the principal immigration officer in charge at the port of arrival.

SEC. 34. That any alien seaman who shall land in a port of the United States contrary to the provisions of this Act shall be deemed to be unlawfully in the United States, and shall, at any time within three years thereafter, upon the warrant of the Secretary of Labor, be taken into custody and brought before a board of special inquiry for examination as to his qualifications for admission to the United States, and if not admitted said alien seaman shall be deported at the expense of the appropriation for this Act as provided in section twenty of this Act.

SEC. 35.<sup>42</sup> That it shall be unlawful for any vessel carrying passengers between a port of the United States and a port of a foreign country, upon arrival in the United States, to have on board employed thereon any alien afflicted with idiocy, imbecility, insanity, epilepsy, tuberculosis in any form, or a loathsome or dangerous contagious disease, if it appears to the satisfaction of the Secretary of Labor from an examination made by a medical officer of the United States Public Health Service, and is so certified by such officer, that any such alien was so afflicted at the time he was shipped or engaged and taken on board such vessel and that the existence of such affliction might have been detected by means of a competent medical examination at such time; and for every such alien so afflicted on board any such vessel at the time of arrival the owner, agent, consignee, or master thereof shall pay to the collector of customs of the customs district in which the port of arrival is located the sum of \$50, and pending departure of the vessel the alien shall be detained and treated in hospital under supervision of immigration officials at the expense of the vessel; and no vessel shall be granted clearance pending the determination of the question of the liability to the payment of such fine and while it remains unpaid: *Provided*, That clearance may be granted prior to the determination of such question upon the deposit of a sum sufficient to cover such fine: *Provided further*, That such fine may, in the discretion of the Secretary of Labor, be mitigated or remitted.

<sup>42</sup> For method of enforcing, see Rule 28.

SEC. 36.<sup>43</sup> That upon arrival of any vessel in the United States from any foreign port or place it shall be the duty of the owner, agent, consignee, or master thereof to deliver to the principal immigration officer in charge of the port of arrival lists containing the names of all aliens employed on such vessel, stating the positions they respectively hold in the ship's company, when and where they were respectively shipped or engaged, and specifying those to be paid off and discharged in the port of arrival; or lists containing so much of such information as the Secretary of Labor shall by regulation prescribe; and after the arrival of any such vessel it shall be the duty of such owner, agent, consignee, or master to report to such immigration officer, in writing, as soon as discovered, all cases in which any such alien has illegally landed from the vessel, giving a description of such alien, together with any information likely to lead to his apprehension; and before the departure of any such vessel it shall be the duty of such owner, agent, consignee, or master to deliver to such immigration officer a further list containing the names of all alien employees who were not employed thereon at the time of the arrival but who will leave port thereon at the time of her departure, and also the names of those, if any, who have been paid off and discharged, and of those, if any who have deserted or landed; and in case of the failure of such owner, agent, consignee, or master so to deliver either of the said lists of such aliens arriving and departing, respectively, or so to report such cases of desertion or landing, such owner, agent, consignee, or master shall, if required by the Secretary of Labor, pay to the collector of customs of the customs district in which the port of arrival is located the sum of \$10 for each alien concerning whom correct lists are not delivered or a true report is not made as above required; and no such vessel shall be granted clearance pending the determination of the question of the liability to the payment of such fine, and, in the event such fine is imposed, while it remains unpaid; nor shall such fine be remitted or refunded: *Provided*, That clearance may be granted prior to the determination of such question upon deposit of a sum sufficient to cover such fine.

SEC. 37. That the word "person" as used in this Act shall

<sup>43</sup> For method of enforcing, see Rule 28.

be construed to import both plural and the singular, as the case may be, and shall include corporations, companies, and associations. When construing and enforcing the provisions of this Act, the act, omission, or failure of any director, officer, agent, or employee of any corporation, company, or association acting within the scope of his employment or office shall in every case be deemed to be the act, omission, or failure of such corporation, company, or association, as well as that of the person acting for or in behalf of such corporation, company, or association.

SEC. 38. That this Act, except as otherwise provided in section three, shall take effect and be enforced on and after May first, nineteen hundred and seventeen. The Act of March twenty-sixth, nineteen hundred and ten, amending the Act of February twentieth, nineteen hundred and seven, to regulate the immigration of aliens into the United States; the Act of February twentieth, nineteen hundred and seven, to regulate the immigration of aliens into the United States, except section thirty-four thereof; the Act of March third, nineteen hundred and three, to regulate the immigration of aliens into the United States, except section thirty-four thereof; and all other Acts and parts of Acts inconsistent with this Act are hereby repealed on and after the taking effect of this Act: *Provided*, That this Act shall not be construed to repeal, alter, or amend existing laws relating to the immigration or exclusion of Chinese persons or persons of Chinese descent, except as provided in section nineteen hereof, nor to repeal, alter, or amend section six, chapter four hundred and fifty-three third session Fifty-eighth Congress, approved February sixth, nineteen hundred and five, nor to repeal, alter, or amend the Act approved August second eighteen hundred and eighty-two, entitled "An Act to regulate the carriage of passengers by sea," and amendments thereto, except as provided in section eleven hereof: *Provided further*, That nothing contained in this Act shall be construed to affect any prosecution, suit, action, or proceedings brought, or any act, thing, or matter, civil or criminal, done or existing at the time of the taking effect of this Act, except as mentioned in the third proviso of section nineteen hereof; but as to all such prosecutions, suits, actions, proceedings, acts, things, or matters, the laws or parts of laws

repealed or amended by this Act are hereby continued in force and effect.

CHAMP CLARK,  
*Speaker of the House of Representatives.*  
THOS. R. MARSHALL,  
*Vice-President of the United States and  
President of the Senate.*

IN THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES  
OF THE UNITED STATES,

*February 1, 1917.*

The President of the United States having returned to the House of Representatives, in which it originated, the bill (H. R. 10384) "To regulate the immigration of aliens to, and the residence of aliens in, the United States," with his objections thereto, the House proceeded in pursuance of the Constitution to reconsider the same; and,

Resolved, That the said bill pass, two-thirds of the House of Representatives agreeing to pass the same.

Attest:

SOUTH TRIMBLE,  
*Clerk.*

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES,

*February 5, 1917.*

The Senate having proceeded, in pursuance of the Constitution, to reconsider the bill (H. R. 10384) entitled "An Act to regulate the immigration of aliens to, and the residence of aliens in, the United States," returned to the House of Representatives by the President of the United States, with his objections, and sent by the House of Representatives to the Senate with the message of the President returning the bill,

Resolved, That the bill do pass, two-thirds of the Senate agreeing to pass the same.

Attest:

JAMES M. BAKER,  
*Secretary.*

ACT APPROVED OCTOBER 16, 1918, AS AMENDED  
BY THE ACT APPROVED JUNE 5, 1920

*Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled,* That section 1 of the act entitled "An act to exclude and expel from the United States aliens who are members of the anarchistic and similar classes," approved October 16, 1918, is amended to read as follows:

That the following aliens shall be excluded from admission into the United States:

(a) Aliens who are anarchists;

(b) Aliens who advise, advocate, or teach, or who are members of or affiliated with any organization, association, society, or group, that advises, advocates, or teaches, opposition to all organized government;

(c) Aliens who believe in, advise, advocate, or teach, or who are members or affiliated with any organization, association, society, or group, that believes in, advises, advocates, or teaches: (1) the overthrow by force or violence of the Government of the United States or of all forms of law, or (2) the duty, necessity, or propriety of the unlawful assaulting or killing of any officer or officers (either of specific individuals or of officers generally) of the Government of the United States or of any other organized government, because of his or their official character, or (3) the unlawful damage, injury, or destruction of property, or (4) sabotage;

(d) Aliens who write, publish, or cause to be written or published, or who knowingly circulate, distribute, print, or display, or knowingly cause to be circulated, distributed, printed, published, or displayed, or who knowingly have in their possession for the purpose of circulation, distribution, publication, or display any written or printed matter, advising, advocating, or teaching opposition to all organized government, or advising, advocating, or teaching: (1) the overthrow by force or violence of the Government of the United States or of all forms of law, or (2) the duty, necessity or propriety of the unlawful assaulting or killing



of any officer or officers (either of specific individuals or of officers generally) of the Government of the United States or of any other organized government, or (3) the unlawful damage, injury, or destruction of property, or (4) sabotage;

(e) Aliens who are members of or affiliated with any organization, association, society, or group, that writes, circulates, distributes, prints, publishes, or displays, or causes to be written, circulated, distributed, printed, published, or displayed, or that has in its possession for the purpose of circulation, distribution, publication, issue, or display, any written or printed matter of the character described in subdivision (d).

For the purpose of this section: (1) the giving, loaning, or promising of money or anything of value to be used for the advising, advocacy, or teaching of any doctrine above enumerated shall constitute the advising, advocacy, or teaching of such doctrine; and (2) the giving, loaning, or promising of money or anything of value to any organization, association, society, or group of the character above described shall constitute affiliation therewith; but nothing in this paragraph shall be taken as an exclusive definition of advising, advocacy, teaching, or affiliation.

SEC. 2. That any alien, who, at any time after entering the United States, is found to have been at the time of entry, or to have become thereafter, a member of any one of the classes of aliens enumerated in section one of this act, shall, upon the warrant of the Secretary of Labor, be taken into custody and deported in the manner provided in the immigration act of February fifth, nineteen hundred and seventeen. The provisions of this section shall be applicable to the classes of aliens mentioned in this act irrespective of the time of their entry into the United States.

SEC. 3. That any alien who shall, after he has been excluded and deported or arrested and deported in pursuance of the provisions of this act, thereafter return to or enter the United States or attempt to return to or to enter the United States shall be deemed guilty of a felony, and upon conviction thereof shall be punished by imprisonment for a term of not more than five years; and shall, upon the ter-



mination of such imprisonment, be taken into custody, upon the warrant of the Secretary of Labor, and deported in the manner provided in the immigration act of February fifth, nineteen hundred and seventeen.

### JOINT RESOLUTION OF OCTOBER 19, 1918

Joint Resolution Authorizing the readmission to the United States of certain aliens who have been conscripted or have volunteered for service with the military forces of the United States or cobelligerent forces.

*Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled,* That notwithstanding the provisions of section three of the immigration Act of February fifth, nineteen hundred and seventeen, excluding from the United States aliens who are likely to become a public charge, or who are physically defective, or who are contract laborers, or who have come in consequence of advertisements for labor printed, published, or distributed in a foreign country, or who are assisted by others to come, or whose ticket or passage is paid for with the money of another, or by any corporation, association, society, municipality, or foreign government, or who are stowaways, or who are illiterate, aliens lawfully resident in the United States when heretofore or hereafter enlisted or conscripted for the military or naval service of the United States, or of any one of the nations cobelligerent of the United States in the present war; and aliens lawfully resident in the United States who have enlisted for service with Czecho-Slovak, Polish, or other independent forces attached to the United States Army or to the army or navy of any one of the cobelligerents of the United States in the present war, who may during or within one year after the termination of the war apply for readmission to this country, after being honorably discharged or granted furlough abroad by the proper military or naval authorities, or after being rejected on final examination in connection with their enlistment or conscription shall, within two years after the termination of the war, be readmitted; and that any alien of either of the foregoing descriptions who would

otherwise be excluded under said section of the immigration Act on the ground that he is idiotic, imbecile, feeble-minded, epileptic, insane, or has had one or more attacks of insanity, or on the ground that he is afflicted with constitutional psychopathic inferiority, tuberculosis, a loathsome or dangerous contagious disease, or mental defect, shall be readmitted if it is proved that the disability was acquired while the alien was serving in the military or naval forces of the United States or of any one of the nations cobelligerent of the United States in the present war or in an independent force of the kind hereinbefore described, if such alien returns to a port of the United States within two years after the termination of the war; and that the head tax provided in the immigration Act of February fifth, nineteen hundred and seventeen, shall not be collected from aliens readmitted into the United States under the provisions of this resolution.

Approved October 19, 1918.

AN ACT TO DEPORT CERTAIN UNDESIRABLE  
ALIENS AND TO DENY READMISSION TO  
THOSE DEPORTED.

*Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That* aliens of the following classes, in addition to those for whose expulsion from the United States provision is made in the existing law, shall, upon the warrant of the Secretary of Labor, be taken into his custody and deported in the manner provided in sections 19 and 20 of the act of February 5, 1917, entitled "An Act to regulate the immigration of aliens to, and the residence of aliens in, the United States," if the Secretary of Labor, after hearing, finds that such aliens are undesirable residents of the United States, to wit:

(1) All aliens who are now interned under section 4067 of the Revised Statutes of the United States and the proclamations issued by the President in pursuance of said section under date of April 6, 1917, November 16, 1917, December 11, 1917, and April 19, 1918, respectively.

(2) All aliens who since August 1, 1914, have been or may hereafter be convicted of any violation or conspiracy to violate any of the following acts or parts of acts, the judgment on such conviction having become final, namely:

(a) An act entitled "An act to punish acts of interference with the foreign relations, the neutrality and the foreign commerce of the United States, to punish espionage, and better to enforce the criminal laws of the United States, and for other purposes," approved June 15, 1917, or the amendment thereof approved May 16, 1918;

(b) An act entitled "An act to prohibit the manufacture, distribution, storage, use, and possession in time of war of explosives, providing regulations for the safe manufacture, distribution, storage, use, and possession of the same, and for other purposes," approved October 6, 1917;

(c) An act entitled "An act to prevent in time of war departure from and entry into the United States contrary to the public safety," approved May 22, 1918;

(d) An act entitled "An act to punish the willful injury or destruction of war material or of war premises or utilities used in connection with war material, and for other purposes," approved April 20, 1918;

(e) An act entitled "An act to authorize the President to increase temporarily the Military Establishment of the United States," approved May 18, 1917, or any amendment thereof or supplement thereto;

(f) An act entitled "An act to punish persons who make threats against the President of the United States," approved February 14, 1917;

(g) An act entitled "An act to define, regulate, and punish trading with the enemy, and for other purposes," approved October 6, 1917, or any amendment thereof;

(h) Section 6 of the Penal Code of the United States.

(3) All aliens who have been or may hereafter be convicted of any offense against section 13 of the said Penal Code committed during the period of August 1, 1914, to April 6, 1917, or of a conspiracy occurring within said period to commit an offense under said section 13, or of any offense committed during said period against the act entitled "An act to protect trade and commerce against unlawful re-

straints and monopolies," approved July 2, 1890, in aid of a belligerent in the European war.

SEC. 2. That in every case in which any such alien is ordered expelled or excluded from the United States under the provisions of this act the decision of the Secretary of Labor shall be final.

SEC. 3. That in addition to the aliens who are by law now excluded from admission into the United States all persons who shall be expelled under any of the provisions of this act shall also be excluded from readmission.

Approved May 10, 1920.

#### AN ACT APPROVED JUNE 5, 1920.

An Act to amend section 3 of an act entitled "An act to regulate the immigration of aliens to, and the residence of aliens in, the United States," approved February 5, 1917.

*Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled,* That section 3 of an act entitled "An act to regulate the immigration of aliens to, and the residence of aliens in, the United States," approved February 5, 1917, is hereby amended by adding at the end thereof the following:

*Provided further,* That an alien who can not read may, if otherwise admissible, be admitted if, within five years after this act becomes law, a citizen of the United States who has served in the military or naval forces of the United States during the war with the Imperial German Government, requests that such alien be admitted, and with the approval of the Secretary of Labor, marries such alien at a United States immigration station.

Approved June 5, 1920.

#### AN ACT TO PROVIDE FOR THE TREATMENT IN HOSPITAL OF DISEASED ALIEN SEAMEN.

*Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled,* That alien seamen found on arrival in ports of the United States to be afflicted with any of the disabilities or diseases mentioned in section 35 of the act of February 5, 1917, en-

titled "An act to regulate the immigration of aliens to, and the residence of aliens in, the United States," shall be placed in a hospital designated by the immigration official in charge at the port of arrival, and treated, all expenses connected therewith, including burial in the event of death, to be borne by the owner, agent, consignee, or master of the vessel, and not to be deducted from the seamen's wages, and no such vessel shall be granted clearance until such expenses are paid or their payment appropriately guaranteed and the collector of customs so notified by the immigration official in charge: *Provided*, That alien seamen suspected of being afflicted with any such disability or disease may be removed from the vessel on which they arrive to an immigration station or other appropriate place for such observation as will enable the examining surgeons definitely to determine whether or not they are so afflicted, all expenses connected therewith to be borne in the manner hereinbefore prescribed: *Provided further*, That in cases in which it shall appear to the satisfaction of the immigration official in charge that it will not be possible within a reasonable time to effect a cure, the return of the alien seamen shall be enforced on or at the expense of the vessel on which they came, upon such conditions as the Commissioner General of Immigration, with the approval of the Secretary of Labor, shall prescribe, to insure that the aliens shall be properly cared for and protected, and that the spread of contagion shall be guarded against.

Approved December 26, 1920.

## APPENDIX B

### IMMIGRATION LAW—MAY 19, 1921.

(Public—No. 5—67th Congress.)

(H. R. 4,075.)

An Act to limit the immigration of aliens into the United States.

*Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That as used in this Act—*

The term "United States" means the United States, and any waters, territory, or other place subject to the jurisdiction thereof except the Canal Zone and the Philippine Islands; but if any alien leaves the Canal Zone or any insular possession of the United States and attempts to enter any other place under the jurisdiction of the United States nothing contained in this Act shall be construed as permitting him to enter under any other conditions than those applicable to all aliens.

The word "alien" includes any person not a native-born or naturalized citizen of the United States, but this definition shall not be held to include Indians of the United States not taxed nor citizens of the islands under the jurisdiction of the United States.

The term "Immigration Act" means the Act of February 5, 1917, entitled "An Act to regulate the immigration of aliens to, and the residence of aliens in, the United States"; and the term "immigration laws" includes such Act and all laws, conventions, and treaties of the United States relating to the immigration, exclusion, or expulsion of aliens.

SEC. 2. (a) That the number of aliens of any nationality who may be admitted under the immigration laws to the United States in any fiscal year shall be limited to 3 per centum of the number of foreign-born persons of such nationality resident in the United States as determined by the United States census of 1910. This provision shall not



apply to the following, and they shall not be counted in reckoning any of the percentage limits provided in this Act:

(1) Government officials, their families, attendants, servants, and employees; (2) aliens in continuous transit through the United States; (3) aliens lawfully admitted to the United States who later go in transit from one part of the United States to another through foreign contiguous territory; (4) aliens visiting the United States as tourists or temporarily for business or pleasure; (5) aliens from countries immigration from which is regulated in accordance with treaties or agreements relating solely to immigration; (6) aliens from the so-called Asiatic barred zone, as described in section 3 of the Immigration Act; (7) aliens who have resided continuously for at least one year immediately preceding the time of their admission to the United States in the Dominion of Canada, Newfoundland, the Republic of Cuba, the Republic of Mexico, countries of Central or South America, or adjacent islands; or (8) aliens under the age of eighteen who are children of citizens of the United States.

(b) For the purposes of this act nationality shall be determined by country of birth, treating as separate countries the colonies or dependencies for which separate enumeration was made in the United States census of 1910.

(c) The Secretary of State, the Secretary of Commerce, and the Secretary of Labor, jointly, shall, as soon as feasible after the enactment of this Act, prepare a statement showing the number of persons of the various nationalities resident in the United States as determined by the United States census of 1910, which statement shall be the population basis for the purposes of this Act. In case of changes in political boundaries in foreign countries occurring subsequent to 1910 and resulting (1) in the creation of new countries, the Governments of which are recognized by the United States, or (2) in the transfer of territory from one country to another, such transfer being recognized by the United States, such officials, jointly, shall estimate the number of persons resident in the United States in 1910 who were born within the area included in such new countries or in such territory so transferred, and revise the popula-

tion basis as to each country involved in such change of political boundary. For the purpose of such revision and for the purposes of this Act generally aliens born in the area included in any such new country shall be considered as having been born in such country, and aliens born in any territory so transferred shall be considered as having been born in the country to which such territory was transferred.

(d) When the maximum number of aliens of any nationality who may be admitted in any fiscal year under this Act shall have been admitted all other aliens of such nationality, except as otherwise provided in this Act, who may apply for admission during the same fiscal year shall be excluded: *Provided*, That the number of aliens of any nationality who may be admitted in any month shall not exceed 20 per centum of the total number of aliens of such nationality who are admissible in that fiscal year: *Provided further*, That aliens returning from a temporary visit abroad, aliens who are professional actors, artists, lecturers, singers, nurses, ministers of any religious denomination, professors for colleges, or seminaries, aliens belonging to any recognized learned profession, or aliens employed as domestic servants, may, if otherwise admissible, be admitted notwithstanding the maximum number of aliens of the same nationality admissible in the same month or fiscal year, as the case may be, shall have entered the United States; but aliens of the classes included in this proviso who enter the United States before such maximum number shall have entered shall (unless excluded by subdivision (a) from being counted) be counted in reckoning the percentage limits provided in this Act: *Provided further*, That in the enforcement of this Act preference shall be given so far as possible to the wives, parents, brothers, sisters, children under eighteen years of age, and fiancées, (1) of citizens of the United States, (2) of aliens now in the United States who have applied for citizenship in the manner provided by law, or (3) of persons eligible to United States citizenship who served in the military or naval forces of the United States at any time between April 6, 1917, and November 11, 1918, both dates inclusive, and have been separated from such forces under honorable conditions.

SEC. 3. That the Commissioner General of Immigration, with the approval of the Secretary of Labor, shall, as soon as feasible after the enactment of this Act, and from time to time thereafter, prescribe rules and regulations necessary to carry the provisions of this Act into effect. He shall, as soon as feasible after the enactment of this Act, publish a statement showing the number of aliens of the various nationalities who may be admitted to the United States between the date this Act becomes effective and the end of the current fiscal year, and on June 30 thereafter he shall publish a statement showing the number of aliens of the various nationalities who may be admitted during the ensuing fiscal year. He shall also publish monthly statements during the time this Act remains in force showing the number of aliens of each nationality already admitted during the then current fiscal year and the number who may be admitted under the provisions of this Act during the remainder of such year, but when 75 per centum of the maximum number of any nationality admissible during the fiscal year shall have been admitted such statements shall be issued weekly thereafter. All statements shall be made available for general publication and shall be mailed to all transportation companies bringing aliens to the United States who shall request the same and shall file with the Department of Labor the address to which such statements shall be sent. The Secretary of Labor shall also submit such statements to the Secretary of State, who shall transmit the information contained therein to the proper diplomatic and consular officials of the United States, which officials shall make the same available to persons intending to emigrate to the United States and to others who may apply.

SEC. 4. That the provisions of this Act are in addition to and not in substitution for the provisions of the immigration laws.

SEC. 5. That this Act shall take effect and be enforced 15 days after its enactment (except Sections 1 and 3 and subdivisions (b) and (c) of Section 2, which shall take effect immediately upon the enactment of this Act), and shall continue in force until June 30, 1922, and the number of aliens of any nationality who may be admitted during the

remaining period of the current fiscal year, from the date when this Act becomes effective to June 30, shall be limited in proportion to the number admissible during the fiscal year 1922.

Approved, May 19, 1921.

## U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

Bureau of Immigration

Washington, June 1, 1921.

Regulations for the enforcement of the Act approved May 19, 1921.

The provisions of the Act approved May 19, 1921, are in addition to and not in substitution for the provisions of laws, conventions, or treaties of the United States relating to the immigration, exclusion, or expulsion of aliens in force and effect upon the passage of said act.

Until the prescribed quota, monthly or otherwise, in respect of the nationals of a given country has been reached, this act will not apply to such nationals, except for classification purposes in reckoning percentage limits.

For the purposes of said act, place of birth shall govern, notwithstanding change in nationalities since 1910 due to transfer of territory where birth occurred in some other country, or the creation of a new country, unless such transfer or new country has not been recognized by the Government of the United States, in which latter event such transfer, or creation of new country, shall be disregarded. To illustrate: (1) A native of Alsace-Lorraine, regardless of claimed nationality, shall be charged to France; (2) a native of a Baltic state (formerly a portion of Russia) the government of which has not been recognized by the Government of the United States, shall be charged to Russia; and (3) an alien born in what is now recognized as Poland shall be charged to the quota of that country, regardless of present citizenship.

(1) Subdivision (a) of Section 2 enumerates eight classes of aliens which shall be regarded as excepted from the quota

count. For the purpose, among others, of making clearer the legislative intent with respect to several of these classes, the following comment is offered:

(a) *Aliens in continuous transit through the United States*:—Immigration officials will exercise care to prevent an abuse of this exemption, to which end they shall, among other things, satisfy themselves that a bona fide transit is intended and that it is the purpose of the alien to pass by continuous journey through and out of the United States. Aliens of this and the class referred to hereinafter in paragraph (c) who are later found residing in the United States under circumstances indicating abandonment of their declared purpose in entering shall be charged to the unfilled quotas of their respective countries, to which end such cases shall be promptly reported to the immigration official in charge at the port where entry occurred.

(b) *Aliens lawfully admitted to the United States who later go in transit from one part of the United States to another through foreign contiguous territory*:—The transit journey herein referred to must be completed within sixty days. Departure and return may occur through the same port. If return is sought after the expiration of sixty days, the applicant may be treated as falling within subdivision (a) of Section 2 hereunder.

(c) *Aliens coming to the United States as tourists or temporarily for business or pleasure*:—Aliens of these classes coming for a period not to exceed six months shall be considered exempted, within the meaning of Section 2, but any such found residing in the United States under circumstances indicating abandonment of visit shall be reported as provided in paragraph (a) hereof.

(d) *Aliens applying for admission from certain foreign countries following a continuous residence of one year or more therein*:—Exemption hereunder shall not be lost merely by reason of temporary absences of short duration from the countries and islands referred to in the act. The Bermudas and all other islands lying off the coasts of North and South America not more distant therefrom than the Bermudas, shall be regarded as "adjacent islands" within the meaning of this exemption.



(2) Under the provisions of paragraph (d) of Section 2 of the Act, aliens of certain enumerated classes may be admitted, in so far as the act is concerned, notwithstanding the quota of the particular country to which they are chargeable has been exhausted. Aliens of said classes are, however, *charged* against the proper quotas until the maximum number thereunder shall have been admitted.

(a) *Aliens returning from a temporary visit abroad:*—A “temporary visit abroad,” as contemplated by the second proviso to subdivision (d) of Section 2 of the Act, shall be construed to mean an absence in any foreign country (without relinquishment of domicile) not exceeding six months in duration. An alien who remains abroad in excess of six months shall be presumed to have abandoned his domicile in the United States. However, such presumption may be overcome by the production of evidence to the contrary, satisfactory to the appropriate immigration officers.

(b) *Aliens employed as domestic servants:*—Domestic servants, for the purposes of the Act, are those only who have actually been employed, either in the United States or any foreign country, in the household of the person or persons accompanying them or to whom destined in the United States, coming for the purpose of continuing such employment.

When the maximum number of aliens of any nationality who may be admitted in any period under this act shall have been admitted, all other aliens of such nationality, except as otherwise expressly provided by said Act, who may apply for admission during that period shall be referred to a board of special inquiry for appropriate action.

These regulations are effective on and after June 3, 1921.

W. W. HUSBAND,  
*Commissioner General.*

WJP\*REM

Approved:

THEODORE G. RISLEY.  
*Acting Secretary.*



## APPENDIX C

### NATURALIZATION LAWS AND REGULATIONS.

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#### NATURALIZATION LAWS.

Act of June 29, 1906 (34 Stat. L., Part 1, p. 596), as amended in sections 16, 17, and 19 by the act of Congress approved March 4, 1909<sup>1</sup> (35 Stat. L., Part 1, p. 1102); in section 13 by the act of Congress approved June 25, 1910<sup>2</sup> (36 Stat. L., Part 1, p. 830); by the act of Congress approved March 4, 1913 (37 Stat. L., Part 1, p. 736), creating the Department of Labor; and by the act of Congress approved May 9, 1918 (Public, No. 144, 65th Cong., 2d sess.)<sup>3</sup>.

An Act to provide for a uniform rule for the naturalization of aliens throughout the United States, and establishing the Bureau of Naturalization.

(Portion of act creating the Department of Labor.)

*Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled,*  
That there is hereby created an executive department in the Government to be called the Department of Labor, with a Secretary of Labor, who shall be the head thereof, to be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate; \* \* \*

SEC. 3. That the following-named officers, bureaus, divisions, and branches of the public service now and heretofore under the jurisdiction of the Department of Commerce and Labor, and all that pertains to the same, known as \* \* \* the Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization, \* \* \* the Division of Naturalization, \* \* \* be, and the same hereby are, transferred from the Department of Commerce and Labor to the Department of Labor, and the same shall

<sup>1</sup> See p. 558.

<sup>2</sup> See p. 556.

<sup>3</sup> See p. 561.

hereafter remain under the jurisdiction and supervision of the last-named department. The Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization is hereby divided into two bureaus, to be known hereafter as the Bureau of Immigration and the Bureau of Naturalization, and the titles Chief of Division of Naturalization and Assistant Chief shall be Commissioner of Naturalization and Deputy Commissioner of Naturalization. The Commissioner of Naturalization or, in his absence, the Deputy Commissioner of Naturalization, shall be the administrative officer in charge of the Bureau of Naturalization and of the administration of the naturalization laws under the immediate direction of the Secretary of Labor, to whom he shall report directly upon all naturalization matters annually and as otherwise required. \* \* \*

(Act of June 29, 1906, as amended by the acts heretofore referred to.)

That the Bureau of Naturalization, under the direction and control of the Secretary of Labor, shall have charge of all matters concerning the naturalization of aliens. That it shall be the duty of the Bureau of Immigration to provide, for use at the various immigration stations throughout the United States, books of record, wherein the commissioners of immigration shall cause a registry to be made in the case of each alien arriving in the United States from and after the passage of this act of the name, age, occupation, personal description (including height, complexion, color of hair and eyes), the place of birth, the last residence, the intended place of residence in the United States, and the date of arrival of said alien, and, if entered through a port, the name of the vessel in which he comes. And it shall be the duty of said commissioners of immigration to cause to be granted to such alien a certificate of such registry, with the particulars thereof.<sup>5</sup>

SEC. 2. (This section is omitted, as it authorized the Secretary of Commerce and Labor to provide the necessary offices in the city of Washington and take the necessary steps for the proper discharge of the duties imposed by the act of June 29, 1906.)

<sup>5</sup> See rule 5.

SEC. 3. That exclusive jurisdiction to naturalize aliens as citizens of the United States is hereby conferred upon the following specified courts:

United States circuit<sup>6</sup> and district courts now existing, or which may hereafter be established by Congress<sup>7</sup> in any State, United States district courts for the Territories of Arizona,<sup>8</sup> New Mexico,<sup>8</sup> Oklahoma,<sup>8</sup> Hawaii, and Alaska, the supreme court of the District of Columbia, and the United States courts for the Indian Territory;<sup>8</sup> also all courts of record in any State or Territory now existing, or which may hereafter be created, having a seal, a clerk, and jurisdiction in actions at law or equity, or law and equity, in which the amount in controversy is unlimited.

That the naturalization jurisdiction of all courts herein specified—State, Territorial, and Federal—shall extend only to aliens resident within the respective judicial districts of such courts.

The courts herein specified shall, upon the requisition of the clerks of such courts, be furnished from time to time by the Bureau of Naturalization with such blank forms as may be required in the naturalization of aliens, and all certificates of naturalization shall be consecutively numbered and printed on safety paper furnished by said bureau.

SEC. 4. That an alien may be admitted to become a citizen of the United States in the following manner and not otherwise:

*First.* He shall declare on oath before the clerk of any court authorized by this act to naturalize aliens, or his authorized deputy, in the district in which such alien resides, two years at least prior to his admission, and after he has reached the age of eighteen years that it is bona fide his intention to become a citizen of the United States and to renounce forever all allegiance and fidelity to any foreign prince, potentate, state, or sovereignty, and particularly, by name, to the prince, potentate, state or sovereignty of which the alien may be at the time a citizen or subject. And such

<sup>6</sup> United States circuit courts abolished December 31, 1911, by act of Congress approved March 3, 1911 (36 Stat. L., part 1, p. 1167.)

<sup>7</sup> Establishment of United States district court for Porto Rico. See p. 566.

<sup>8</sup> United States Territorial courts abolished by acts of Congress conferring statehood.

declaration shall set forth the name, age, occupation, personal description, place of birth, last foreign residence and allegiance, the date of arrival, the name of the vessel, if any, in which he came to the United States, and the present place of residence in the United States of said alien: *Provided, however*, That no alien who, in conformity with the law in force at the date of his declaration, has declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States shall be required to renew such declaration.\*

*Second.* Not less than two years nor more than seven years after he has made such declaration of intention he shall make and file, in duplicate, a petition in writing, signed by the applicant in his own handwriting and duly verified, in which petition such applicant shall state his full name, his place of residence (by street and number, if possible), his occupation, and, if possible, the date and place of his birth; the place from which he emigrated, and the date and place of his arrival in the United States, and, if he entered through a port, the name of the vessel on which he arrived; the time when and the place and name of the court where he declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States; if he is married he shall state the name of his wife and, if possible, the country of her nativity and her place of residence at the time of filing his petition; and if he has children, the name, date, and place of birth and place of residence of each child living at the time of the filing of his petition: *Provided*, That if he has filed his declaration before the passage of this act he shall not be required to sign the petition in his own handwriting.

The petition shall set forth that he is not a disbeliever in or opposed to organized government, or a member of or affiliated with any organization or body of persons teaching disbelief in or opposed to organized government, a polygamist, or believer in the practice of polygamy, and that it is his intention to become a citizen of the United States and to renounce absolutely and forever all allegiance and fidelity to any foreign prince, potentate, state, or sovereignty and particularly by name to the prince, potentate, state, or sover-

\* Declarations of intention more than 7 years old are insufficient to support petitions for naturalization. (See *U. S. v. Morena*, 171 Fed., 297.)

eignty of which he at the time of filing of his petition may be a citizen or subject, and that it is his intention to reside permanently within the United States, and whether or not he has been denied admission as a citizen of the United States, and, if denied, the ground or grounds of such denial, the court or courts in which such decision was rendered, and that the cause for such denial has since been cured or removed, and every fact material to his naturalization and required to be proved upon the final hearing of his application.

The petition shall also be verified by the affidavits of at least two credible witnesses, who are citizens of the United States, and who shall state in their affidavits that they have personally known the applicant to be a resident of the United States for a period of at least five years continuously, and of the State, Territory, or the District of Columbia,<sup>10</sup> in which the application is made for a period of at least one year immediately preceding the date of the filing of his petition, and that they each have personal knowledge that the petitioner is a person of good moral character, and that he is in every way qualified, in their opinion, to be admitted as a citizen of the United States.

At the time of filing his petition there shall be filed with the clerk of the court a certificate from the Department of Labor, if the petitioner arrives in the United States after the passage of this act, stating the date, place, and manner of his arrival in the United States, and the declaration of intention of such petitioner, which certificate and declaration shall be attached to and made a part of said petition.

*Third.* He shall, before he is admitted to citizenship, declare on oath in open court that he will support the Constitution of the United States, and that he absolutely and entirely renounces and abjures all allegiance and fidelity to any foreign prince, potentate, state, or sovereignty, and particularly by name to the prince, potentate, state, or sovereignty of which he was before a citizen or subject; that he will support and defend the Constitution and laws of the United States against all enemies, foreign and domestic, and bear true faith and allegiance to the same.

<sup>10</sup> The word "District" amended by the act of May 9, 1918, to read "the District of Columbia."



*Fourth.* It shall be made to appear to the satisfaction of the court admitting any alien to citizenship that immediately preceding the date of his application he has resided continuously within the United States five years at least, and within the State or Territory where such court is at the time held one year at least, and that during that time he has behaved as a man of good moral character, attached to the principles of the Constitution of the United States, and well disposed to the good order and happiness of the same. In addition to the oath of the applicant, the testimony of at least two witnesses, citizens of the United States, as to the facts of residence, moral character, and attachment to the principles of the Constitution shall be required, and the name, place of residence, and occupation of each witness shall be set forth in the record.

*Fifth.* In case the alien applying to be admitted to citizenship has borne any hereditary title, or has been of any of the orders of nobility in the kingdom or state from which he came, he shall, in addition to the above requisites, make an express renunciation of his title or order of nobility in the court to which his application is made, and his renunciation shall be recorded in the court.

*Sixth.* When any alien who has declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States dies before he is actually naturalized the widow and minor children of such alien may, by complying with the other provisions of this act, be naturalized without making any declaration of intention.

*Seventh.* Any native-born Filipino of the age of twenty-one years and upward who has declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States and who has enlisted or may hereafter enlist in the United States Navy or Marine Corps or the Naval Auxiliary Service, and who, after service of not less than three years, may be honorably discharged therefrom, or who may receive an ordinary discharge with recommendation for reenlistment; or any alien,

<sup>12</sup> Section four of the act entitled "An act to establish a Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization and to provide a uniform rule for the naturalization of aliens throughout the United States," approved June twenty-ninth, nineteen hundred and six, was amended by the act of May 9, 1918 (Pub. No. 144, 65th Cong.), by adding seven new subdivisions.



or any Porto Rican not a citizen of the United States, of the age of twenty-one years and upward, who has enlisted or entered or may hereafter enlist in or enter the armies of the United States, either the Regular or the Volunteer Forces, or the National Army, the National Guard or Naval Militia of any State, Territory, or the District of Columbia, or the State militia in Federal service, or in the United States Navy or Marine Corps, or in the United States Coast Guard, or who has served for three years on board of any vessel of the United States Government, or for three years on board of merchant or fishing vessels of the United States of more than twenty tons burden, and while still in the service on a reenlistment or reappointment, or within six months after an honorable discharge or separation therefrom, or while on furlough to the Army Reserve or Regular Army Reserve after honorable service, may, on presentation of the required declaration of intention petition for naturalization without proof of the required five years' residence within the United States if upon examination by the representative of the Bureau of Naturalization, in accordance with the requirements of this subdivision, it is shown that such residence can not be established; any alien serving in the military or naval service of the United States during the time this country is engaged in the present war may file his petition for naturalization without making the preliminary declaration of intention and without proof of the required five years' residence within the United States; any alien declarant who has served in the United States Army or Navy, or the Philippine Constabulary, and has been honorably discharged therefrom, and has been accepted for service in either the military or naval service of the United States on the condition that he becomes a citizen of the United States, may file his petition for naturalization upon proof of continuous residence within the United States for the three years immediately preceding his petition, by two witnesses, citizens of the United States, and in these cases only residence in the Philippine Islands and the Panama Canal Zone by aliens may be considered residence within the United States, and the place of such military service shall be construed as the place of residence required to be established for purposes of naturalization; and any alien, or any person

owing permanent allegiance to the United States embraced within this subdivision, may file his petition for naturalization in the most convenient court without proof of residence within its jurisdiction, notwithstanding the limitation upon the jurisdiction of the courts specified in section three of the act of June twenty-ninth, nineteen hundred and six, provided he appears with his two witnesses before the appropriate representative of the Bureau of Naturalization and passes the preliminary examination hereby required before filing his petition for naturalization in the office of the clerk of the court, and in each case the record of this examination shall be offered in evidence by the representative of the Government from the Bureau of Naturalization and made a part of the record at the original and any subsequent hearings; and, except as otherwise herein provided, the honorable discharge certificate of such alien, or person owing permanent allegiance to the United States, or the certificate of service showing good conduct, signed by a duly authorized officer, or by the masters of said vessels, shall be deemed *prima facie* evidence to satisfy all of the requirements of residence within the United States and within the State, Territory, or the District of Columbia, and good moral character required by law, when supported by the affidavits of two witnesses, citizens of the United States, identifying the applicant as the person named in the certificate or honorable discharge, and in those cases only where the alien is actually in the military or naval service of the United States, the certificate of arrival shall not be filed with the petition for naturalization in the manner prescribed; and any petition for naturalization filed under the provisions of this subdivision may be heard immediately, notwithstanding the law prohibits the hearing of a petition for naturalization during thirty days preceding any election in the jurisdiction of the court. Any alien who, at the time of the passage of this act, is in the military service of the United States, who may not be within the jurisdiction of any court authorized to naturalize aliens, may file his petition for naturalization without appearing in person in the office of the clerk of the court and shall not be required to take the prescribed oath of allegiance in open court. The petition shall be verified by

the affidavits of at least two credible witnesses who are citizens of the United States, and who shall prove in their affidavits the portion of the residence that they have personally known the applicant to have resided within the United States. The time of military service may be established by the affidavits of at least two other citizens of the United States, which together with the oath of allegiance, may be taken in accordance with the terms of section seventeen hundred and fifty of the Revised Statutes of the United States after notice from and under regulations of the Bureau of Naturalization. Such affidavits and oath of allegiance shall be admitted in evidence in any original or appellate naturalization proceeding without proof of the genuineness of the seal or signature or of the official character of the officer before whom the affidavits and oath of allegiance were taken, and shall be filed by the representative of the Government from the Bureau of Naturalization at the hearing as provided by section eleven of the act of June twenty-ninth, nineteen hundred and six. Members of the Naturalization Bureau and Service may be designated by the Secretary of Labor to administer oaths relating to the administration of the naturalization law; and the requirement of section ten of notice to take depositions to the United States attorneys is repealed, and the duty they perform under section fifteen of the act of June twenty-ninth, nineteen hundred and six (Thirty-fourth Statutes at Large, part one, page five hundred and ninety-six), may also be performed by the Commissioner or Deputy Commissioner of Naturalization: *Provided*, That it shall not be lawful to make a declaration of intention before the clerk of any court on election day or during the period of thirty days preceding the day of holding any election in the jurisdiction of the court: *Provided further*, That service by aliens upon vessels other than of American registry, whether continuous or broken, shall not be considered as residence for naturalization purposes within the jurisdiction of the United States, and such aliens can not secure residence for naturalization purposes during service upon vessels of foreign registry.

During the time when the United States is at war no clerk of a United States court shall charge or collect a naturalization fee from an alien in the military service of the United

States for filing his petition or issuing the certificate of naturalization upon admission to citizenship, and no clerk of any State court shall charge or collect any fee for this service unless the laws of the State require such charge to be made, in which case nothing more than the portion of the fee required to be paid to the State shall be charged or collected. A full accounting for all of these transactions shall be made to the Bureau of Naturalization in the manner provided by section thirteen of the act of June twenty-ninth, nineteen hundred and six.

*Eighth.* That every seaman, being an alien, shall, after his declaration of intention to become a citizen of the United States, and after he shall have served three years upon such merchant or fishing vessels of the United States, be deemed a citizen of the United States for the purpose of serving on board any such merchant or fishing vessel of the United States, anything to the contrary in any act of Congress notwithstanding; but such seaman shall, for all purposes of protection as an American citizen, be deemed such after the filing of his declaration of intention to become such citizen: *Provided*, That nothing contained in this act shall be taken or construed to repeal or modify any portion of the act approved March fourth, nineteen hundred and fifteen (Thirty-eighth Statutes at Large, part one, page eleven hundred and sixty-four, chapter one hundred and fifty-three), being an act to promote the welfare of American seamen.

*Ninth.* That for the purpose of carrying on the work of the Bureau of Naturalization of sending the names of the candidates for citizenship to the public schools and otherwise promoting instruction and training in citizenship responsibilities of applicants for naturalization as provided in this subdivision, authority is hereby given for the reimbursement of the printing and binding appropriation of the Department of Labor upon the records of the Treasury Department from the naturalization fees deposited in the Treasury through the Bureau of Naturalization for the cost of publishing the citizenship textbook prepared and to be distributed by the Bureau of Naturalization to those candidates for citizenship only who are in attendance upon the public schools, such reimbursement to be made upon state-

ments by the Commissioner of Naturalization of books actually delivered to such student candidates for citizenship, and a monthly naturalization bulletin, and in this duty to secure the aid of and cooperate with the official State and national organizations, including those concerned with vocational education and including personal services in the District of Columbia, and to aid the local Army exemption boards and cooperate with the War Department in locating declarants subject to the Army draft and expenses incidental thereto.

*Tenth.* That any person not an alien enemy, who resided uninterruptedly within the United States during the period of five years next preceding July first, nineteen hundred and fourteen, and was on that date otherwise qualified to become a citizen of the United States, except that he had not made the declaration of intention required by law, and who during or prior to that time, because of misinformation regarding his citizenship status, erroneously exercised the rights and performed the duties of a citizen of the United States in good faith, may file the petition for naturalization prescribed by law without making the preliminary declaration of intention required of other aliens, and upon satisfactory proof to the court that he has so acted may be admitted as a citizen of the United States upon complying in all respects with the other requirements of the naturalization law.

*Eleventh.* No alien who is a native, citizen, subject, or denizen of any country, State, or sovereignty with which the United States is at war shall be admitted to become a citizen of the United States unless he made his declaration of intention not less than two nor more than seven years prior to the existence of the state of war, or was at that time entitled to become a citizen of the United States, without making a declaration of intention, or unless his petition for naturalization shall then be pending and is otherwise entitled to admission, notwithstanding he shall be an alien enemy at the time and in the manner prescribed by the laws passed upon that subject: *Provided*, That no alien embraced within this subdivision shall have his petition for naturalization called for a hearing, or heard, except after ninety days' notice given by the clerk of the court to the Commissioner



or Deputy Commissioner of Naturalization to be present, and the petition shall be given no final hearing except in open court and after such notice to the representative of the Government from the Bureau of Naturalization, whose objection shall cause the petition to be continued from time to time for so long as the Government may require: *Provided, however*, That nothing herein contained shall be taken or construed to interfere with or prevent the apprehension and removal, agreeably to law, of any alien enemy at any time previous to the actual naturalization of such alien; and section twenty-one hundred and seventy-one of the Revised Statutes of the United States is hereby repealed: *Provided further*, That the President of the United States may, in his discretion, upon investigation and report by the Department of Justice fully establishing the loyalty of any alien enemy not included in the foregoing exemption, except such alien enemy from the classification of alien enemy, and thereupon he shall have the privilege of applying for naturalization; and for the purposes of carrying into effect the provisions of this section, including personal services in the District of Columbia, the sum of \$400,000 is hereby appropriated, to be available until June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and nineteen, including travel expenses for members of the Bureau of Naturalization and its field service only, and the provisions of section thirty-six hundred and seventy-nine of the Revised Statutes shall not be applicable in any way to this appropriation.

*Twelfth.* That any person who, while a citizen of the United States and during the existing war in Europe, entered the military or naval service of any country at war with a country with which the United States is now at war, who shall be deemed to have lost his citizenship by taking of any oath or obligation taken by him for the purpose of entering such service, may resume his citizenship by taking the oath of allegiance to the United States prescribed by the naturalization law and regulations, and such oath may be taken before any court of the United States or of any State authorized by law to naturalize aliens or before any consul of the United States, and certified copies thereof shall be sent by such court or consul to the Department of State and the Bureau of Naturalization, and the act (Public fifty-



five, Sixty-fifth Congress, approved October fifth, nineteen hundred and seventeen) is hereby repealed.

*Thirteenth.* That any person who is serving in the military or naval forces of the United States at the termination of the existing war and any person who before the termination of the existing war may have been honorably discharged from the military or naval services of the United States on account of disability incurred in line of duty, shall, if he applies to the proper court for admission as a citizen of the United States, be relieved from the necessity of proving that immediately preceding the date of his application he has resided continuously within the United States the time required by law of other aliens, or within the State, Territory, or the District of Columbia for the year immediately preceding the date of his petition for naturalization, but his petition for naturalization shall be supported by the affidavits of two credible witnesses, citizens of the United States, identifying the petitioner as the person named in the certificate of honorable discharge, which said certificate may be accepted as evidence of good moral character required by law, and he shall comply with the other requirements of the naturalization law.

SEC. 5. That the clerk of the court shall, immediately after filing the petition, give notice thereof by posting in a public and conspicuous place in his office, or in the building in which his office is situated, under an appropriate heading, the name, nativity, and residence of the alien, the date and place of his arrival in the United States, and the date, as nearly as may be, for the final hearing of his petition, and the names of the witnesses whom the applicant expects to summon in his behalf; and the clerk shall, if the applicant requests it, issue a subpoena for the witnesses so named by the said applicant to appear upon the day set for the final hearing, but in case such witnesses can not be produced upon the final hearing other witnesses may be summoned.

SEC. 6. That petitions for naturalization may be made and filed during term time or vacation of the court and shall be docketed the same day as filed, but final action thereon shall be had only on stated days, to be fixed by rule of the court, and in no case shall final action be had upon a petition until at least ninety days have elapsed after filing and

posting the notice of such petition: *Provided*, That no person shall be naturalized nor shall any certificate of naturalization be issued by any court within thirty days preceding the holding of any general election within its territorial jurisdiction. It shall be lawful at the time and as a part of the naturalization of any alien, for the court, in its discretion, upon the petition of such alien, to make a decree changing the name of said alien, and his certificate of naturalization shall be issued to him in accordance therewith.

SEC. 7. That no person who disbelieves in or who is opposed to organized government, or who is a member of or affiliated with any organization entertaining and teaching such disbelief in or opposition to organized government, or who advocates or teaches the duty, necessity, or propriety of the unlawful assaulting or killing of any officer or officers, either of specific individuals or of officers generally, of the Government of the United States, or of any other organized government, because of his or their official character, or who is a polygamist, shall be naturalized or be made a citizen of the United States.

SEC. 8. That no alien shall hereafter be naturalized or admitted as a citizen of the United States who can not speak the English language: *Provided*, That this requirement shall not apply to aliens who are physically unable to comply therewith, if they are otherwise qualified to become citizens of the United States: *And provided further*, That the requirements of this section shall not apply to any alien who has prior to the passage of this act declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States in conformity with the law in force at the date of making such declaration: *Provided further*, That the requirements of section eight shall not apply to aliens who shall hereafter declare their intention to become citizens and who shall make homestead entries upon the public lands of the United States and comply in all respects with the laws providing for homestead entries on such lands.

SEC. 9. That every final hearing upon such petition shall be had in open court before a judge or judges thereof, and every final order which may be made upon such petition shall be under the hand of the court and entered in full upon a record kept for that purpose, and upon such final

hearing of such petition the applicant and witnesses shall be examined under oath before the court and in the presence of the court.

SEC. 10. That in case the petitioner has not resided in the State, Territory, or the District of Columbia<sup>13</sup> for a period of five years continuously and immediately preceding the filing of his petition he may establish by two witnesses, both in his petition and at the hearing, the time of his residence within the State, provided that it has been for more than one year, and the remaining portion of his five years' residence within the United States required by law to be established may be proved by the depositions of two or more witnesses who are citizens of the United States, upon notice to the Bureau of Naturalization.

SEC. 11. That the United States shall have the right to appear before any court or courts exercising jurisdiction in naturalization proceedings for the purpose of cross-examining the petitioner and the witnesses produced in support of his petition concerning any matter touching or in any way affecting his right to admission to citizenship, and shall have the right to call witnesses, produce evidence, and be heard in opposition to the granting of any petition in naturalization proceedings.

SEC. 12. That it is hereby made the duty of the clerk of each and every court exercising jurisdiction in naturalization matters under the provisions of this act to keep and file a duplicate of each declaration of intention made before him and to send to the Bureau of Naturalization at Washington, within thirty days after the issuance of a certificate of citizenship, a duplicate of such certificate, and to make and keep on file in his office a stub for each certificate so issued by him, whereon shall be entered a memorandum of all the essential facts set forth in such certificate. It shall also be the duty of the clerk of each of said courts to report to the said bureau, within thirty days after the final hearing and decision of the court, the name of each and every alien who shall be denied naturalization, and to furnish to said bureau duplicates of all petitions within thirty days after the filing of the same, and certified copies of such other pro-

<sup>13</sup> The word "District" amended by the act of May 9, 1918, to read "the District of Columbia."

ceedings and orders instituted in or issued out of said court affecting or relating to the naturalization of aliens as may be required from time to time by the said bureau.

In case any such clerk or officer acting under his direction shall refuse or neglect to comply with any of the foregoing provisions he shall forfeit and pay to the United States the sum of twenty-five dollars in each and every case in which such violation or omission occurs, and the amount of such forfeiture may be recovered by the United States in an action of debt against such clerk.

Clerks of courts having and exercising jurisdiction in naturalization matters shall be responsible for all blank certificates of citizenship received by them from time to time from the Bureau of Naturalization, and shall account for the same to the said bureau whenever required so to do by such bureau. No certificate of citizenship received by any such clerk which may be defaced or injured in such manner as to prevent its use as herein provided shall in any case be destroyed, but such certificate shall be returned to the said bureau; and in case any such clerk shall fail to return or properly account for any certificate furnished by the said bureau, as herein provided, he shall be liable to the United States in the sum of fifty dollars, to be recovered in an action of debt, for each and every certificate not properly accounted for or returned.

SEC. 13.<sup>14</sup> That the clerk of each and every court exercising jurisdiction in naturalization cases shall charge, collect, and account for the following fees in each proceeding:<sup>15</sup>

For receiving and filing a declaration of intention and issuing a duplicate thereof, one dollar.

For making, filing, and docketing the petition of an alien for admission as a citizen of the United States and for the final hearing thereon, two dollars; and for entering the final order and the issuance of the certificate of citizenship thereunder, if granted, two dollars.

The clerk of any court collecting such fees is hereby authorized to retain one-half of the fees collected by him in such naturalization proceeding; the remaining one-half

<sup>14</sup> Sec. 13 as amended by act of June 25, 1910.

<sup>15</sup> See last paragraph of seventh subdivision of sec. 4, p. 530, regarding fee to be paid by alien in military service who files petition during time United States is at war.

of the naturalization fees in each case collected by such clerks, respectively, shall be accounted for in their quarterly accounts, which they are hereby required to render the Bureau of Naturalization, and paid over to such bureau within thirty days from the close of each quarter in each and every fiscal year, and the moneys so received shall be paid over to the disbursing clerk of the Department of Labor, who shall thereupon deposit them in the Treasury of the United States, rendering an account therefor quarterly to the Auditor for the State and other Departments, and the said disbursing clerk shall be held responsible under his bond for said fees so received.

In addition to the fees herein required, the petitioner shall, upon the filing of his petition to become a citizen of the United States, deposit with and pay to the clerk of the court a sum of money sufficient to cover the expenses of subpoenaing and paying the legal fees of any witnesses for whom he may request a subpoena, and upon the final discharge of such witnesses they shall receive, if they demand the same from the clerk, the customary and usual witness fees from the moneys which the petitioner shall have paid to such clerk for such purpose, and the residue, if any, shall be returned by the clerk to the petitioner: *Provided*, That the clerks of courts exercising jurisdiction in naturalization proceedings shall be permitted to retain one-half of the fees in any fiscal year up to the sum of three thousand dollars, and that all fees received by such clerks in naturalization proceedings in excess of such amount shall be accounted for and paid over to said bureau as in case of other fees to which the United States may be entitled under the provisions of this act. The clerks of the various courts exercising jurisdiction in naturalization proceedings shall pay all additional clerical force that may be required in performing the duties imposed by this act upon the clerks of courts from fees received by such clerks in naturalization proceedings.

And in case the clerk of any court exercising naturalization jurisdiction collects fees in excess of the sum of six thousand dollars in any fiscal year the Secretary of Labor may allow salaries, for naturalization purposes only, to pay for clerical assistance, to be selected and employed by that



clerk, additional to the clerical force, for which clerks of courts are required by this section to pay from fees received by such clerks in naturalization proceedings, if in the opinion of said Secretary the naturalization business of such clerk warrants further additional assistance: *Provided*, That in no event shall the whole amount allowed the clerk of a court and his assistants exceed the one-half of the gross receipts of the office of said clerk from naturalization fees during such fiscal year: *Provided further*, That when, at the close of any fiscal year, the business of such clerk of court indicates, in the opinion of the Secretary of Labor, that the naturalization fees for the succeeding fiscal year will exceed six thousand dollars the Secretary of Labor may authorize the continuance of the allowance of salaries for the additional clerical assistance herein provided for and employed on the last day of the fiscal year until such time as the remittances indicate, in the opinion of said Secretary, that the fees for the then current fiscal year will not be sufficient to allow the additional clerical assistance authorized by this act.

That payment for the additional clerical assistance herein authorized shall be in the manner and under such regulations as the Secretary of Labor may prescribe.

SEC. 14. That the declarations of intention and the petitions for naturalization shall be bound in chronological order in separate volumes, indexed, consecutively numbered, and made part of the records of the court. Each certificate of naturalization issued shall bear upon its face, in a place prepared therefor, the volume number and page number of the petition whereon such certificate was issued, and the volume number and page number of the stub of such certificate.

SEC. 15. That it shall be the duty of the United States district attorneys for the respective districts, upon affidavit showing good cause therefor, to institute proceedings in any court having jurisdiction to naturalize aliens in the judicial district in which the naturalized citizen may reside at the time of bringing the suit, for the purpose of setting aside and canceling the certificate of citizenship on the ground of fraud or on the ground that such certificate of citizenship was illegally procured. In any such proceedings

the party holding the certificate of citizenship alleged to have been fraudulently or illegally procured shall have sixty days' personal notice in which to make answer to the petition of the United States; and if the holder of such certificate be absent from the United States or from the district in which he last had his residence, such notice shall be given by publication in the manner provided for the service of summons by publication or upon absentees by the laws of the State or the place where such suit is brought.

If any alien who shall have secured a certificate of citizenship under the provisions of this act shall, within five years after the issuance of such certificate, return to the country of his nativity, or go to any other foreign country, and take permanent residence therein, it shall be considered *prima facie* evidence of a lack of intention on the part of such alien to become a permanent citizen of the United States at the time of filing his application for citizenship, and, in the absence of countervailing evidence, it shall be sufficient in the proper proceeding to authorize the cancellation of his certificate of citizenship as fraudulent, and the diplomatic and consular officers of the United States in foreign countries shall from time to time, through the Department of State, furnish the Department of Justice with the names of those within their respective jurisdictions who have such certificates of citizenship and who have taken permanent residence in the country of their nativity, or in any other foreign country, and such statements, duly certified, shall be admissible in evidence in all courts in proceedings to cancel certificates of citizenship.

Whenever any certificate of citizenship shall be set aside or cancelled, as herein provided, the court in which such judgment or decree is rendered shall make an order cancelling such certificate of citizenship and shall send a certified copy of such order to the Bureau of Naturalization; and in case such certificate was not originally issued by the court making such order it shall direct the clerk of the court to transmit a copy of such order and judgment to the court out of which such certificate of citizenship shall have been originally issued. And it shall thereupon be the duty of the clerk of the court receiving such certified copy of the order and judgment of the court to enter the same of

record and to cancel such original certificate of citizenship upon the records and to notify the Bureau of Naturalization of such cancellation.

The provisions of this section shall apply not only to certificates of citizenship issued under the provisions of this act, but to all certificates of citizenship which may have been issued heretofore by any court exercising jurisdiction in naturalization proceedings under prior laws.

SEC. 16. (Superseded by act of Mar. 4, 1909. See sec. 74, p. 558.)

SEC. 17. (Superseded by act of Mar. 4, 1909. See sec. 75, p. 558.)

SEC. 18. That it is hereby made a felony for any clerk or other person to issue or be a party to the issuance of a certificate of citizenship contrary to the provisions of this act, except upon a final order under the hand of a court having jurisdiction to make such order, and upon conviction thereof such clerk or other person shall be punished by imprisonment for not more than five years and by a fine of not more than five thousand dollars, in the discretion of the court.

SEC. 19. (Superseded by act of Mar. 4, 1909. See sec. 77, p. 559.)

SEC. 20. That any clerk or other officer of a court having power under this act to naturalize aliens, who willfully neglects to render true accounts of moneys received by him for naturalization proceedings or who willfully neglects to pay over any balance of such moneys due to the United States within thirty days after said payment shall become due and demand therefor has been made and refused, shall be deemed guilty of embezzlement of the public moneys, and shall be punishable by imprisonment for not more than five years, or by a fine of not more than five thousand dollars, or both.

SEC. 21. That it shall be unlawful for any clerk of any court or his authorized deputy or assistant exercising jurisdiction in naturalization proceedings to demand, charge, collect, or receive any other or additional fees or moneys in naturalization proceedings save the fees and moneys

herein specified; and a violation of any of the provisions of this section or any part thereof is hereby declared to be a misdemeanor and shall be punished by imprisonment for not more than two years, or by a fine of not more than one thousand dollars, or by both such fine and imprisonment.

SEC. 22. That the clerk of any court exercising jurisdiction in naturalization proceedings, or any person acting under authority of this act, who shall knowingly certify that a petitioner, affiant, or witness named in an affidavit, petition, or certificate of citizenship, or other paper or writing required to be executed under the provisions of this act, personally appeared before him and was sworn thereto, or acknowledged the execution thereof or signed the same, when in fact such petitioner, affiant, or witness did not personally appear before him, or was not sworn thereto, or did not execute the same, or did not acknowledge the execution thereof, shall be punished by a fine not exceeding five thousand dollars, or by imprisonment not to exceed five years.

SEC. 23. That any person who knowingly procures naturalization in violation of the provisions of this act shall be fined not more than five thousand dollars, or shall be imprisoned not more than five years, or both, and upon conviction the court in which such conviction is had shall thereupon adjudge and declare the final order admitting such person to citizenship void. Jurisdiction is hereby conferred on the courts having jurisdiction of the trial of such offense to make such adjudication. Any person who knowingly aids, advises, or encourages any person not entitled thereto to apply for or to secure naturalization, or to file the preliminary papers declaring an intent to become a citizen of the United States, or who in any naturalization proceeding knowingly procures or gives false testimony as to any material fact, or who knowingly makes an affidavit false as to any material fact required to be proved in such proceeding, shall be fined not more than five thousand dollars, or imprisoned not more than five years, or both.

SEC. 24. That no person shall be prosecuted, tried, or punished for any crime arising under the provisions of this act unless the indictment is found or the information is filed

within five years next after the commission of such crime.

SEC. 25. That for the purpose of the prosecution of all crimes and offenses against the naturalization laws of the United States which may have been committed prior to the date when this act shall go into effect, the existing naturalization laws shall remain in full force and effect.

SEC. 26. That sections twenty-one hundred and sixty-five, twenty-one hundred and sixty-seven, twenty-one hundred and sixty-eight, twenty-one hundred and seventy-three of the Revised Statutes of the United States of America, and section thirty-nine of chapter one thousand and twelve of the Statutes at Large of the United States of America for the year nineteen hundred and three, and all acts or parts of acts inconsistent with or repugnant to the provisions of this act are hereby repealed.

SEC. 27. That substantially the following forms shall be used in the proceedings to which they relate:

#### DECLARATION OF INTENTION

(Invalid for all purposes seven years after the date hereof.)

....., SS:

I, ....., aged.....years, occupation....., do declare on oath (affirm) that my personal description is: Color....., complexion....., height....., weight....., color of hair....., color of eyes....., other visible distinctive marks.....; I was born in....., on the.....day of....., anno Domini.....; I now reside at.....; I emigrated to the United States of America from....., on the vessel.....; my last foreign residence was..... It is my bona fide intention to renounce forever all allegiance and fidelity to any foreign prince, potentate, state, or sovereignty, and particularly to....., of which I am now a citizen (subject): I arrived at the (port) of....., in the State (Territory or the District of Columbia<sup>10</sup>) of ....., on

<sup>10</sup> The word "District" amended by the act of May 9, 1918, to read "the District of Columbia."



or about the.....day of....., anno Domini.....; I am not an anarchist; I am not a polygamist nor a believer in the practice of polygamy; and it is my intention in good faith to become a citizen of the United States of America and to permanently reside therein. So help me God.

(Original signature of declarant) .....

Subscribed and sworn to (affirmed) before me this..... day of....., anno Domini.....

.....  
(L. s.) (Official character of attestor.)

#### PETITION FOR NATURALIZATION

..... Court of .....

In the matter of the petition of ..... to be admitted as a citizen of the United States of America.

To the.....Court:

The petition of .....respectfully shows:

First. My full name is .....

Second. My place of residence is number..... street, city of ....., State (Territory or the District of Columbia<sup>17</sup>) of .....

Third. My occupation is.....

Fourth. I was born on the.....day of.....at.....

Fifth. I emigrated to the United States from....., on or about the.....day of....., anno Domini...., and arrived at the port of....., in the United States, on the vessel.....

Sixth. I declared my intention to become a citizen of the United States on the.....day of....., at....., in the .....court of.....

Seventh. I am .. married. My wife's name is ..... She was born in.....and now resides at..... I have.....children, and the name, date, and place of birth and place of residence of each of said children is as follows: .....; .....; .....

<sup>17</sup> The word "District" amended by the act of May 9, 1918, to read "the District of Columbia."

Eighth. I am not a disbeliever in or opposed to organized government or a member of or affiliated with any organization or body of persons teaching disbelief in organized government. I am not a polygamist nor a believer in the practice of polygamy. I am attached to the principles of the Constitution of the United States, and it is my intention to become a citizen of the United States and to renounce absolutely and forever all allegiance and fidelity to any foreign prince, potentate, state, or sovereignty, and particularly to ....., of which at this time I am a citizen (or subject), and it is my intention to reside permanently in the United States.

Ninth. I am able to speak the English language.

Tenth. I have resided continuously in the United States of America for a term of five years at least immediately preceding the date of this petition, to wit, since....., anno Domini.....and in the State (Territory or the District of Columbia<sup>18</sup>) of.....for one year at least next preceding the date of this petition, to wit, since.....day of....., anno Domini.....

Eleventh. I have not heretofore made petition for citizenship to any court. (I made petition for citizenship to the.....court of.....at....., and the said petition was denied by the said court for the following reasons and causes, to wit, ....., and the cause of such denial has since been cured or removed.)

Attached hereto and made a part of this petition are my declaration of intention to become a citizen of the United States and the certificate from the Department of Labor required by law. Wherefore your petitioner prays that he may be admitted a citizen of the United States of America.

Dated.....

(Signature of petitioner) ..... ..

....., ss:

....., being duly sworn, deposes and says that he is the petitioner in the above-entitled proceeding; that he has read the foregoing petition and knows the contents

<sup>18</sup>The word "District" amended by the act of May 9, 1918, to read "the District of Columbia."

thereof; that the same is true of his own knowledge, except as to matters therein stated to be alleged upon information and belief, and that as to those matters he believes it to be true.

Subscribed and sworn to before me this.....day of  
....., anno Domini.....

(L. S.)

.....  
Clerk of the.....Court.

#### AFFIDAVIT OF WITNESSES

..... Court of .....

In the matter of the petition of ..... to be admitted  
a citizen of the United States of America.

....., SS:

....., occupation....., residing at....., and  
....., occupation....., residing at....., each  
being severally, duly, and respectively sworn, deposes and  
says that he is a citizen of the United States of America;  
that he has personally known....., the petitioner  
above mentioned, to be a resident of the United States for  
a period of at least five years continuously immediately pre-  
ceding the date of filing his petition, and of the State (Ter-  
ritory or the District of Columbia<sup>19</sup>) in which the above-  
entitled application is made for a period of.....years im-  
mediately preceding the date of filing his petition; and that  
he has personal knowledge that the said petitioner is a per-  
son of good moral character, attached to the principles of  
the Constitution of the United States, and that he is in  
every way qualified, in his opinion, to be admitted as a  
citizen of the United States.

.....  
.....

Subscribed and sworn to before me this.....day of....  
:..., nineteen hundred and.....

(L. S.)

(Official character of attestor.)

<sup>19</sup> The word "District" amended by the act of May 9, 1918, to read "the District of Columbia."

## CERTIFICATE OF NATURALIZATION

Number .....

Petition, volume....., page.....

Stub, volume....., page.....

(Signature of holder) ..... ..

Description of holder: Age, .....; height, .....; color, .....; complexion, .....; color of eyes, .....; color of hair, .....; visible distinguishing marks, ..... Name, age, and place of residence of wife, ....., ..... Names, ages, and places of residence of minor children, .....  
 ..... ss.:

Be it remembered, that at a.....term of the.....court of....., held at.....on the.....day of....., in the year of our Lord nineteen hundred and....., ....., who previous to his (her) naturalization was a citizen or subject of....., at present residing at number..... street, .....city (town), .....State (Territory or the District of Columbia,<sup>20</sup> having applied to be admitted a citizen of the United States of America pursuant to law, and the court having found that the petitioner had resided continuously within the United States for at least five years and in this State for one year immediately preceding the date of the hearing of his (her) petition, and that said petitioner intends to reside permanently in the United States, had in all respects complied with the law in relation thereto, and that ..he was entitled to be so admitted, it was thereupon ordered by the said court that ..he be admitted as a citizen of the United States of America.

In testimony whereof the seal of said court is hereunto affixed on the.....day of....., in the year of our Lord nineteen hundred and.....and of our independence the

.....

(L. S.)

.....

(Official character of attestor.)

<sup>20</sup> The word "District" amended by the act of May 9, 1918, to read "the District of Columbia."

## No. of certificate, .....

Name, .....; age, .....

Declaration of intention, volume....., page.....

Petition, volume....., page.....

Name, age, and place of residence of wife, . . . . ., . . . . ., . . . . ., Names, ages, and places of residence of minor children, . . . , . . . , . . . , . . . , . . . , . . . , . . . , . . . , . . . . .

Date of order, volume....., page.....

(Signature of holder) . . . . .

SEC. 28. That the Secretary of Labor shall have power to make such rules and regulations as may be necessary for properly carrying into execution the various provisions of this act. Certified copies of all papers, documents, certificates, and records required to be used, filed, recorded, or kept under any and all of the provisions of this act shall be admitted in evidence equally with the originals in any and all proceedings under this act and in all cases in which the originals thereof might be admissible as evidence.

SEC. 29. That for the purpose of carrying into effect the provisions of this act there is hereby appropriated the sum of one hundred thousand dollars, out of any moneys in the Treasury of the United States not otherwise appropriated, which appropriation shall be in full for the objects hereby expressed until June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and seven; and the provisions of section thirty-six hundred and seventy-nine of the Revised Statutes of the United States shall not be applicable in any way to this appropriation.

SEC. 30. That all the applicable provisions of the naturalization laws of the United States shall apply to and be held to authorize the admission to citizenship of all persons not citizens who owe permanent allegiance to the United States, and who may become residents of any State or organized Territory of the United States, with the following modifications: The applicant shall not be required to renounce alle-



giance to any foreign sovereignty; he shall make his declaration of intention to become a citizen of the United States at least two years prior to his admission; and residence within the jurisdiction of the United States, owing such permanent allegiance, shall be regarded as residence within the United States within the meaning of the five years' residence clause of the existing law.

SEC. 31. That this act shall take effect and be in force from and after ninety days from the date of its passage: *Provided*, That sections one, two, twenty-eight, and twenty-nine shall go into effect from and after the passage of this act.

Approved, June 29, 1906.

## NATURALIZATION

### Naturalization Limited to White Persons and Those of the African Race

(For a list of sections repealed see p. 17 of this pamphlet, sec. 26 of act of June 29, 1906; subdivisions 11th and 12th, under sec. 4, p. 10; and p. 27.)

(Act of February 18, 1875, amending act of July 14, 1870.)

SEC. 2169. The provisions of this title shall apply to aliens being free white persons; and to aliens of African nativity and to persons of African descent. (R. S. 1878, p. 380; 1 Comp. Stat. 1901, p. 1333.)

### Naturalization of Chinese Prohibited

(Act of May 6, 1882.)

SEC. 14. That hereafter no State court or court of the United States shall admit Chinese to citizenship; and all laws in conflict with this act are hereby repealed. (22 Stat. L., p. 61.)

### Residence Within the United States for Five Years Continuously Required

(Act of March 3, 1813.)

(The United States Circuit Court of Appeals has held that sec. 2170 was not repealed by the naturalization act of June 29, 1906. See *United States v. Rodiek*, 162 Fed., 469.)

SEC. 2170. No alien shall be admitted to become a citizen who has not for the continued term of five years next preceding his admission resided within the United States. (R. S. 1878, p. 380; 1 Comp. Stat. 1901, p. 1333.)

**Naturalization of Alien Enemies Prohibited**

(Act of July 30, 1813, amending act of April 14, 1802.)

SEC. 2171. R. S. 1878, p. 380; 1 Comp. Stat. 1901, p. 1334. This section repealed by the act of May 9, 1918 (Pub. No. 144, 65th Cong.). (See sec. 4, subdivision 11th, p. 10.)

**Alien Seamen of Merchant Vessels**

(Act of July 7, 1872.)

SEC. 2174. R. S. 1878, p. 380; 1 Comp. Stat. 1901, p. 1334. This section repealed by the act of May 9, 1918 (Pub. No. 144, 65th Cong.). (See sec. 4, subdivisions 7th and 8th, pp. 6 and 9.)

**Naturalization of Declarants Who Have Served in the Naval Reserve Force in Time of War**

(Act of May 22, 1917.)

*Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled,* That the Act entitled "An Act making appropriations for the naval service for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and seventeen, and for other purposes," approved August twenty-ninth, nineteen hundred and sixteen, be, and the same is hereby, amended by adding after the proviso under the heading "Naval Reserve Force," which reads as follows: "*Provided*, That citizens of the insular possessions of the United States may enroll in the Naval Auxiliary Reserve," a further proviso as follows: "*Provided further*, That such persons who are not citizens of the United States, but who have or shall have declared their intention to become citizens of the United States, and who are citizens of countries which are at peace with the United States, may enroll in the Naval Reserve Force subject to the condition that they may be discharged from such enrollment at any time within the discretion of the Secretary of the Navy, and such persons who may, under existing law, become citizens of the United States, and who render honorable service in the Naval Reserve Force in time of war for a period of not less than one year may become citizens of the United

States without proof of residence on shore and without further requirement than proof of good moral character and certificate from the Secretary of the Navy that such honorable service was actually rendered. (Public Laws, 65th Cong., 1st sess., 1917, p. 84.)

### **Honorably Discharged Soldiers Exempt From Certain Formalities**

(Act of July 17, 1862.)

SEC. 2166. R. S. 1878, p. 379; 1 Comp. Stat. 1901, p. 1332. This section repealed by act of May 9, 1918 (Pub. No. 144, 65th Cong.), except as to honorably discharged soldiers who served in U. S. Armies prior to January 1, 1900. (See subdivision 7th, p. 6; sec. 2, p. 27.)

### **Aliens Honorably Discharged From Service in Navy or Marine Corps**

(Act of July 26, 1894 [28 Stat. L., p. 124]. Repealed by act of May 9, 1918. Pub. No. 144, 65th Cong.)

(See subdivision 7th, p. 6; also p. 28.)

### **Aliens Honorably Discharged From Service in Navy, Marine Corps, Revenue-Cutter Service, or Naval Auxiliary Service**

(Act of June 30, 1914 [38 Stat. L., pt. 1, p. 395]. Repealed by act of May 9, 1918. Pub. No. 144, 65th Cong.)

(See subdivision 7th, p. 6; also p. 28.)

### **Aliens Honorably Discharged From Military or Naval Forces of the United States After Service During the Present War**

(Public, No. 21, 66th Cong., approved July 19, 1919.)

\* \* \* \*

Any person of foreign birth who served in the military or naval forces of the United States during the present war, after final examination and acceptance by the said military or naval authorities, and shall have been honorably discharged after such acceptance and service, shall have the benefits of the seventh subdivision of section 4, of the Act

of June 29, 1906, 34 Statutes at Large, part 1, page 596, as amended, and shall not be required to pay any fee therefor; and this provision shall continue for the period of one year after all of the American troops are returned to the United States.

\* \* \* \*

**Aliens Who Erroneously Believed Themselves Citizens  
Exempt From Certain Formalities**

(Act of June 25, 1910.)

SEC. 3. 36 Stat. L., pt. 1, p. 830. This section repealed by act of May 9, 1918 (Pub. No. 144, 65th Cong.). (See subdivision 10th, p. 9; also p. 28.)

**Providing for Naturalization of Wife and Minor Children  
of Insane Aliens Making Homestead Entries Under  
Land Laws of the United States**

(Act of February 24, 1911.)

*Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That* when any alien, who has declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States, becomes insane before he is actually naturalized, and his wife shall thereafter make a homestead entry under the land laws of the United States, she and their minor children may, by complying with the other provisions of the naturalization laws be naturalized without making any declaration of intention. (36 Stat. L., pt. 1, p. 929.)

**Naturalization of Deserters or Persons Who Go Abroad to  
Avoid Draft Prohibited**

(Act of August 22, 1912.)

SEC. 3954. (Amending Sec. 1998, U. S. R. S.) Every person who hereafter deserts the military or naval service of the United States, or who, being duly enrolled, departs the jurisdiction of the district in which he is enrolled, or goes beyond the limits of the United States, with intent to avoid any draft into the military or naval service, lawfully ordered, shall be liable to all the penalties and forfeitures of section 1996 of the Revised Statutes: *Provided, That the*

provisions of this section and said section 1996 (*infra*) shall not apply to any person hereafter deserting the military or naval service of the United States in time of peace \* \* \* (4 Comp. Stat. 1916, p. 4828.)

(Act of March 3, 1865.)

SEC. 1996. All persons who deserted the military or naval service of the United States and did not return thereto or report themselves to a provost marshal within sixty days after the issuance of the proclamation by the President, dated the 11th day of March, 1865, are deemed to have voluntarily relinquished and forfeited their rights of citizenship, as well as their right to become citizens; and such deserters shall be forever incapable of holding any office of trust or profit under the United States, or of exercising any rights of citizens thereof. (R. S. 1878, p. 350; 1 Comp. Stat. 1901, p. 1269.)

**Debarring From Naturalization Certain Aliens Who May  
Withdraw Their Declaration of Intention to Avoid  
Military Service**

(Act of July 9, 1918.)

\* \* \* *Provided*, That a citizen or subject of a country neutral in the present war who has declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States shall be relieved from liability to military service upon his making a declaration, in accordance with such regulations as the President may prescribe, withdrawing his intention to become a citizen of the United States, which shall operate and be held to cancel his declaration of intention to become an American citizen, and he shall forever be debarred from becoming a citizen of the United States. \* \* \* (40 Stat. L., pt. 1, p. 885.)

**Relating to Section 13 of the Act of June 29, 1906, as  
Amended June 25, 1910**

(Act of June 12, 1917.)

\* \* \* *Provided*, That the whole amount allowed for a fiscal year to the clerk of a court and his assistants from naturalization fees and this appropriation or any similar



appropriation made hereafter shall be based upon and not exceed the one-half of the gross receipts of said clerk from naturalization fees during the fiscal year immediately preceding, unless the naturalization business of the clerk of any court during the year shall be in excess of the naturalization business of the preceding year, in which event the amount allowed may be increased to an amount equal to one-half the estimated gross receipts of the said clerk from naturalization fees during the current fiscal year: \* \* \*. (40 Stat. L., pt. 1, p. 171.)

**Official Mail to Be Forwarded by Clerks of Courts to Bureau Free of Postage, and by Registered Mail if Necessary**

(Act of October 6, 1917.)

\* \* \* That all mail matter, of whatever class, relating to naturalization, including duplicate papers required by law or regulation to be sent to the Bureau of Naturalization by clerks of State or Federal courts, addressed to the Department of Labor, or the Bureau of Naturalization, or to any official thereof, and indorsed "Official Business," shall be transmitted free of postage, and by registered mail if necessary, and so marked: *Provided further*, That if any person shall make use of such indorsement to avoid payment of postage or registry fee on his or her private letter, package, or other matter in the mail, the person so offending shall be guilty of a misdemeanor and subject to a fine of \$300, to be prosecuted in any court of competent jurisdiction.

\* \* \* \*

(Pub. Laws, 65th Cong., 1st sess., 1917, p. 376. Postal Laws and Regs., sec. 878, par. 3 1-2, and sec. 498, par. 2.)

**Validating Certain Certificates of Naturalization Where Declarations Were Filed Prior to September 27, 1906**

(Act of May 9, 1918.)

SEC. 3. That all certificates of naturalization granted by courts of competent jurisdiction prior to December thirty-first, nineteen hundred and eighteen, upon petitions for naturalization filed prior to January thirty-first, nineteen

hundred and eighteen, upon declarations of intention filed prior to September twenty-seventh, nineteen hundred and six, are hereby declared to be valid in so far as the declaration of intention is concerned, but shall not be by this act further validated or legalized.

### **An Act to Codify, Revise, and Amend the Penal Laws of the United States**

(Act of March 4, 1909.)

(The following sections repealed secs. 16, 17, and 19 of the act of June 29, 1906.)

SEC. 74. Whoever shall falsely make, forge, or counterfeit, or cause or procure to be falsely made, forged, or counterfeited, or shall knowingly aid or assist in falsely making, forging, or counterfeiting any certificate of citizenship, with intent to use the same, or with the intent that the same may be used by some other person, shall be fined not more than ten thousand dollars, or imprisoned not more than ten years, or both.

SEC. 75. Whoever shall engrave, or cause or procure to be engraved, or assist in engraving, any plate in the likeness of any plate designed for the printing of a certificate of citizenship; or whoever shall sell any such plate, or shall bring into the United States from any foreign place any such plate, except under the direction of the Secretary of Labor or other proper officer; or whoever shall have in his control, custody, or possession any metallic plate engraved after the similitude of any plate from which any such certificate has been printed, with intent to use or to suffer such plate to be used in forging or counterfeiting any such certificate or any part thereof; or whoever shall print, photograph, or in any manner cause to be printed, photographed, made, or executed any print or impression in the likeness of any such certificate, or any part thereof; or whoever shall sell any such certificate, or shall bring the same into the United States from any foreign place except by direction of some proper officer of the United States; or whoever shall have in his possession a distinctive paper which has been adopted by the proper officer of the United States for the printing of such certificate, with intent unlawfully to

use the same, shall be fined not more than ten thousand dollars, or imprisoned not more than ten years, or both.

SEC. 76. Whoever, when applying to be admitted a citizen, or when appearing as a witness for any such person, shall knowingly personate any person other than himself, or shall falsely appear in the name of a deceased person, or in an assumed or fictitious name; or whoever shall falsely make, forge, or counterfeit any oath, notice, affidavit, certificate, order, record, signature, or other instrument, paper, or proceeding required or authorized by any law relating to or providing for the naturalization of aliens; or whoever shall utter, sell, dispose of, or shall use as true or genuine, for any unlawful purpose, any false, forged, antedated, or counterfeit oath, notice, certificate, order, record, signature, instrument, paper or proceeding above specified; or whoever shall sell or dispose of to any person other than the person for whom it was originally issued any certificate of citizenship or certificate showing any person to be admitted a citizen, shall be fined not more than one thousand dollars, or imprisoned not more than five years, or both.

SEC. 77. Whoever shall use or attempt to use, or shall aid, assist, or participate in the use of any certificate of citizenship, knowing the same to be forged, counterfeit, or antedated, or knowing the same to have been procured by fraud or otherwise unlawfully obtained; or whoever, without lawful excuse, shall knowingly possess any false, forged, antedated, or counterfeit certificate of citizenship purporting to have been issued under any law of the United States relating to naturalization, knowing such certificate to be false, forged, antedated, or counterfeit, with the intent unlawfully to use the same; or whoever shall obtain, accept, or receive any certificate of citizenship, knowing the same to have been procured by fraud or by the use or means of any false name or statement given or made with the intent to procure, or to aid in procuring, the issuance of such certificate, or knowing the same to have been fraudulently altered or antedated; or whoever, without lawful excuse, shall have in his possession any blank certificate of citizenship provided by the Bureau of Naturalization with the intent unlawfully to use the same; or whoever, after having been admitted to be a

citizen, shall, on oath or by affidavit, knowingly deny that he has been so admitted, with the intent to evade or avoid any duty or liability imposed or required by law, shall be fined not more than one thousand dollars, or imprisoned not more than five years, or both.

SEC. 78. Whoever shall in any manner use, for the purpose of registering as a voter, or as evidence of a right to vote, or otherwise unlawfully, any order, certificate of citizenship, or certificate, judgment, or exemplification, showing any person to be admitted to be a citizen, whether heretofore or hereafter issued or made, knowing that such order, certificate, judgment, or exemplification has been unlawfully issued or made; or whoever shall unlawfully use, or attempt to use, any such order or certificate, issued to or in the name of any other person, or in a fictitious name, or the name of a deceased person, shall be fined not more than one thousand dollars, or imprisoned not more than five years, or both.

SEC. 79. Whoever shall knowingly use any certificate of naturalization heretofore or which hereafter may be granted by any court, which has been or may be procured through fraud or by false evidence, or which has been or may hereafter be issued by the clerk or any other officer of the court without any appearance and hearing of the applicant in court and without lawful authority; or whoever, for any fraudulent purpose whatever, shall falsely represent himself to be a citizen of the United States without having been duly admitted to citizenship, shall be fined not more than one thousand dollars, or imprisoned not more than two years, or both.

SEC. 80. Whoever, in any proceeding under or by virtue of any law relating to the naturalization of aliens, shall knowingly swear falsely in any case where an oath is made or affidavit taken, shall be fined not more than one thousand dollars and imprisoned not more than five years.

SEC. 81. The provisions of the five sections last preceding shall apply to all proceedings had or taken, or attempted to be had or taken, before any court in which any proceeding for naturalization may be commenced or attempted to be commenced, and whether such court was vested by law with jurisdiction in naturalization proceedings or not. (35 Stat. L., pt. I, p. 1102.)

(By the terms of section 341 of the act referred to above the foregoing sections specifically repealed sections 5395, 5424, 5425, 5426, 5428, and 5429 of the Revised Statutes of the United States, as well as sections 16, 17, and 19 of the act of June 29, 1906, 34 Stat. L., pt. 1, p. 596.)

### Laws Repealed by the Act of May 9, 1918

(The act of May 9, 1918, Public No. 144, Sixty-fifth Congress, contained the following provisions:)

SEC. 2. \* \* \* That all acts or parts of acts inconsistent with or repugnant to the provisions of this act are hereby repealed; but nothing in this act shall repeal or in any way enlarge section twenty-one hundred and sixty-nine of the Revised Statutes, except as specified in the seventh subdivision of this act and under the limitation therein defined: *Provided*, That for the purposes of the prosecution of all crimes and offenses against the naturalization laws of the United States which may have been committed prior to this act the statutes and laws hereby repealed shall remain in full force and effect: *Provided further*, That as to all aliens who, prior to January first, nineteen hundred, served in the Armies of the United States and were honorably discharged therefrom, section twenty-one hundred and sixty-six of the Revised Statutes of the United States shall be and remain in full force and effect, anything in this act to the contrary notwithstanding.

(And specifically repealed the following: Sections 2166, 2171, 2174, United States Revised Statutes; and so much of an act approved June 26, 1894, entitled "An act making provisions for the naval service for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1895, and for other purposes [28 Stat. L., p. 124], as relates to naturalization; and so much of an act approved June 30, 1914, entitled "An act making appropriations for the naval service for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1915, and for other purposes [38 Stat. L., pt. 1, p. 392], as relates to naturalization; and so much of section 3 of an act approved June 25, 1910 [36 Stat. L., pt. 1, p. 830], as relates to naturalization; and Public Act, No. 55, Sixty-fifth Congress, approved October 5, 1917.)



## CITIZENSHIP

(In regard to the acquisition of citizenship by means other than naturalization, see also secs. 1992 and 1995 of the United States Revised Statutes.)

### Citizenship by Birth

SEC. 1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside.  
\* \* \* (Constitution, Art. XIV.)

### Citizenship of Children Born Abroad of Citizens

(Act of February 10, 1855, amending act of April 14, 1802.)

SEC. 1993. All children heretofore born or hereafter born out of the limits and jurisdiction of the United States, whose fathers were or may be at the time of their birth citizens thereof, are declared to be citizens of the United States; but the rights of citizenship shall not descend to children whose fathers never resided in the United States. (R. S. 1878, p. 350; 1 Comp. Stat. 1901, p. 1268.)

### Citizenship of Women by Marriage

(Act of February 10, 1855.)

SEC. 1994. Any woman who is now or may hereafter be married to a citizen of the United States, and who might herself be lawfully naturalized, shall be deemed a citizen. (R. S. 1878, p. 350; 1 Comp. Stat. 1901, p. 1268.)

### Children of Persons Naturalized Under Certain Laws to Be Citizens

(Act of April 14, 1802.)

SEC. 2172. The children of persons who have been duly naturalized under any law of the United States, or who, previous to the passing of any law on that subject by the Government of the United States, may have become citizens of any one of the States, under the laws thereof, being under the age of twenty-one years at the time of the naturalization of their parents, shall, if dwelling in the United States,

be considered as citizens thereof; and the children of persons who now are, or have been, citizens of the United States, shall, though born out of the limits and jurisdiction of the United States, be considered as citizens thereof; but no person heretofore proscribed by any State, or who has been legally convicted of having joined the army of Great Britain during the Revolutionary War, shall be admitted to become a citizen without the consent of the legislature of the State in which such person was proscribed. (R. S. 1878; p. 380; 1 Comp. Stat. 1901, p. 1334.)

### Expatriation of Citizens and Their Protection Abroad

(Act of March 2, 1907.)

SECTION 1. (Repealed by sec. 5 of Public Act, No. 238, 66th Cong.)

SEC. 2. That any American citizen shall be deemed to have expatriated himself when he has been naturalized in any foreign State in conformity with its laws, or when he has taken an oath of allegiance to any foreign State.

When any naturalized citizen shall have resided for two years in the foreign State from which he came, or for five years in any other foreign State, it shall be presumed that he has ceased to be an American citizen, and the place of his general abode shall be deemed his place of residence during said years: *Provided, however*, That such presumption may be overcome on the presentation of satisfactory evidence to a diplomatic or consular officer of the United States, under such rules and regulations as the Department of State may prescribe: *And provided also*, That no American citizen shall be allowed to expatriate himself when this country is at war.

SEC. 3. That any American woman who marries a foreigner shall take the nationality of her husband. At the termination of the marital relation she may resume her American citizenship, if abroad, by registering as an American citizen within one year with a consul of the United States, or by returning to reside in the United States, or, if residing in the United States at the termination of the marital relation, by continuing to reside therein.

SEC. 4. That any foreign woman who acquires American citizenship by marriage to an American shall be assumed to retain the same after the termination of the marital relation if she continue to reside in the United States, unless she makes formal renunciation thereof before a court having jurisdiction to naturalize aliens, or if she resides abroad she may retain her citizenship by registering as such before a United States consul within one year after the termination of such marital relation.

SEC. 5. That a child born without the United States of alien parents shall be deemed a citizen of the United States by virtue of the naturalization of or resumption of American citizenship by the parent; *Provided*, That such naturalization or resumption takes place during the minority of such child: *And provided further*, That the citizenship of such minor child shall begin at the time such minor child begins to reside permanently in the United States.

SEC. 6. That all children born outside the limits of the United States who are citizens thereof in accordance with the provisions of section nineteen hundred and ninety-three of the Revised Statutes of the United States and who continue to reside outside the United States shall, in order to receive the protection of this Government, be required upon reaching the age of eighteen years to record at an American consulate their intention to become residents and remain citizens of the United States and shall be further required to take the oath of allegiance to the United States upon attaining their majority.

SEC. 7. That duplicates of any evidence, registration, or other acts required by this act shall be filed with the Department of State for record. (34 Stat. L., pt. 1, p. 1228.)

### Porto Rican Citizenship

(Act of April 12, 1900.)

SEC. 7. That all inhabitants continuing to reside therein who were Spanish subjects on the eleventh day of April, eighteen hundred and ninety-nine, and then resided in Porto Rico, and their children born subsequent thereto, shall be deemed and held to be citizens of Porto Rico, and as such entitled to the protection of the United States, except such

as shall have elected to preserve their allegiance to the crown of Spain on or before the eleventh day of April, nineteen hundred, in accordance with the provisions of the treaty of peace between the United States and Spain entered into on the eleventh day of April, eighteen hundred and ninety-nine; \* \* \*. (31 Stat. L., 79.)

### Porto Rico: Citizenship, Naturalization, and Residence

(Act of March 2, 1917.)

\* \* \* \*

SEC. 5. That all citizens of Porto Rico, as defined by section seven of the act of April twelfth, nineteen hundred, "temporarily to provide revenues and a civil government for Porto Rico, and for other purposes," and all natives of Porto Rico who were temporarily absent from that island on April eleventh, eighteen hundred and ninety-nine and have since returned and are permanently residing in that island, and are not citizens of any foreign country, are hereby declared, and shall be deemed and held to be, citizens of the United States: *Provided*, That any person hereinbefore described may retain his present political status by making a declaration under oath, of his decision to do so within six months of the taking effect of this act before the district court in the district in which he resides, the declaration to be in form as follows:

"I, . . . . ., being duly sworn, hereby declare my intention not to become a citizen of the United States as provided in the act of Congress conferring United States citizenship upon citizens of Porto Rico and certain natives permanently residing in said island."

In the case of any such person who may be absent from the island during said six months the term of this proviso may be availed of by transmitting a declaration, under oath, in the form herein provided within six months of the taking effect of this act to the executive secretary of Porto Rico: *And provided further*, That any person who is born in Porto Rico of an alien parent and is permanently residing in that island may, if of full age, within six months of the taking effect of this act, or if a minor, upon reaching his

majority or within one year thereafter, make a sworn declaration of allegiance to the United States before the United States District Court for Porto Rico, setting forth therein all the facts connected with his or her birth and residence in Porto Rico and accompanying due proof thereof, and from and after the making of such declaration shall be considered to be a citizen of the United States.

\* \* \*

SEC. 41. That Porto Rico shall constitute a judicial district to be called "the district of Porto Rico." \* \* \* The district court for said district shall be called "the District Court of the United States for Porto Rico," \* \* \* said district court shall have jurisdiction for the naturalization of aliens and Porto Ricans, and for this purpose residence in Porto Rico shall be counted in the same manner as residence elsewhere in the United States. \* \* \* (39 Stat. L., 965.)

### Granting Citizenship to Certain Indians

(Received by the President, Oct. 25, 1919; has become a law without his approval.)

*Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled,* That every American Indian who served in the Military or Naval Establishments of the United States during the war against the Imperial German Government, and who has received or who shall hereafter receive an honorable discharge, if not now a citizen and if he so desires, shall on proof of such discharge and after proper identification before a court of competent jurisdiction, and without other examination except as prescribed by said court, be granted full citizenship with all the privileges pertaining thereto, without in any manner impairing or otherwise affecting the property rights, individual or tribal, of any such Indian or his interest in tribal or other Indian property. (Public Laws, No. 75, 66th Cong.)



## APPENDIX D

### CALIFORNIA ALIEN LAND LAW

#### Property Rights and Disabilities of Aliens in California

(Initiative Measure Passed Nov. 2, 1920, Submitted Directly to the Electors.)

ALIEN LAND LAW. INITIATIVE ACT. PERMITS ACQUISITION AND TRANSFER OF REAL PROPERTY BY ALIENS ELIGIBLE TO CITIZENSHIP, TO SAME EXTENT AS CITIZENS EXCEPT AS OTHERWISE PROVIDED BY LAW; PERMITS OTHER ALIENS, AND COMPANIES, ASSOCIATIONS AND CORPORATIONS IN WHICH THEY HOLD MAJORITY INTEREST, TO ACQUIRE AND TRANSFER REAL PROPERTY ONLY AS PRESCRIBED BY TREATY, BUT PROHIBITING APPOINTMENT THEREOF AS GUARDIANS OF ESTATES OF MINORS CONSISTING WHOLLY OR PARTIALLY OF REAL PROPERTY OR SHARES IN SUCH CORPORATIONS; PROVIDES FOR ESCHEATS IN CERTAIN CASES; REQUIRES REPORTS OF PROPERTY HOLDINGS TO FACILITATE ENFORCEMENT OF ACT; PRESCRIBES PENALTIES AND REPEALS CONFLICTING ACTS.

*An act relating to the rights, powers and disabilities of aliens and of certain companies, associations and corporations with respect to property in this state, providing for escheats in certain cases, prescribing the procedure therein, requiring reports of certain property holdings to facilitate the enforcement of this act, prescribing penalties for violation of the provisions hereof, and repealing all acts or parts of acts inconsistent or in conflict herewith:*

*The people of the State of California do enact as follows:*

SECTION 1. All aliens eligible to citizenship under the laws of the United States may acquire, possess, enjoy, transmit and inherit real property, or any interest therein, in this state, in the same manner and to the same extent as citizens of the United States except as otherwise provided by the laws of this state.

SEC. 2. All aliens other than those mentioned in section one of this act may acquire, possess, enjoy and transfer real property, or any interest therein, in this state, in the manner and to the extent and for the purpose prescribed by any treaty now existing between the government of the United States and the nation or country of which such alien is a citizen or subject, and not otherwise.

SEC. 3. Any company, association or corporation organized under the laws of this or any other state or nation, of which a majority of the members are aliens other than those specified in section one of this act, or in which a majority of the issued capital stock is owned by such aliens, may acquire, possess, enjoy and convey real property, or any interest therein in this state in the manner and to the extent and for the purposes prescribed by any treaty now existing between the government of the United States and the nation or country of which such members or stockholders are citizens or subjects, and not otherwise. Hereafter all aliens other than those specified in section one hereof may become members of or acquire shares of stock in any company, association or corporation that is or may be authorized to acquire, possess, enjoy or convey agricultural land, in the manner and to the extent and for the purposes prescribed by any treaty now existing between the government of the United States and the nation or country of which such alien is a citizen or subject, and not otherwise.

SEC. 4. Hereafter no alien mentioned in section two hereof and no company, association or corporation mentioned in section three hereof, may be appointed guardian of that portion of the estate of a minor which consists of property which such alien or such company, association or corporation is inhibited from acquiring, possessing, enjoying or transferring by reason of the provisions of this act.

The public administrator of the proper county, or any other competent person or corporation, may be appointed guardian of the estate of a minor citizen whose parents are ineligible to appointment under the provisions of this section.

On such notice to the guardian as the court may require, the superior court may remove the guardian of such an estate whenever it appears to the satisfaction of the court:

(a) That the guardian has failed to file the report required by the provisions of section five hereof; or

(b) That the property of the ward has not been or is not being administered with due regard to the primary interest of the ward; or

(c) That facts exist which would make the guardian ineligible to appointment in the first instance; or

(d) That facts establishing any other legal ground for removal exist.

SEC. 5. (a) The term "trustee" as used in this section means any person, company, association or corporation that as guardian, trustee, attorney-in-fact or agent, or in any other capacity has the title, custody or control of property, or of some interest therein, belonging to an alien mentioned in section two hereof, or to the minor child of such an alien, if the property is of such a character that such alien is inhibited from acquiring, possessing, enjoying or transferring it.

(b) Annually on or before the thirty-first day of January every such trustee must file in the office of the secretary of state of California and in the office of the county clerk of each county in which any of the property is situated, a verified written report showing:

(1) The property, real or personal, held by him for or on behalf of such an alien or minor;

(2) A statement showing the date when each item of such property came into his possession or control;

(3) An itemized account of all expenditures, investments, rents, issues and profits in respect to the administration and control of such property with particular reference to holdings of corporate stock and leases, cropping contracts and other agreements in respect to land and the handling or sale of products thereof.

(c) Any person, company, association or corporation that violates any provision of this section is guilty of a misdemeanor and shall be punished by a fine not exceeding one thousand dollars or by imprisonment in the county jail not exceeding one year, or by both such fine and imprisonment.

(d) The provisions of this section are cumulative and are not intended to change the jurisdiction or the rules of practice of courts of justice.

SEC. 6. Whenever it appears to the court in any probate proceeding that by reason of the provisions of this act any heir or devisee can not take real property in this state or membership or shares of stock in a company, association or corporation which, but for said provisions, said heir or devisee would take as such, the court instead of ordering a distribution of such property to such heir or devisee, shall order a sale of said property to be made in the manner provided by law for probate sales of property and the proceeds of such sale shall be distributed to such heir or devisee in lieu of such property.

SEC. 7. Any real property hereafter acquired in fee in violation of the provisions of this act by any alien mentioned in section two of this act, or by any company, association or corporation mentioned in section three of this act, shall escheat to, and become and remain the property of the State of California. The attorney general or district attorney of the proper county shall institute proceedings to have the escheat of such real property adjudged and enforced in the manner provided by section four hundred seventy-four of the Political Code and title eight, part three of the Code of Civil Procedure. Upon the entry of final judgment in such proceedings, the title to such real property shall pass to the State of California. The provisions of this section and of sections two and three of this act shall not apply to any real property hereafter acquired in the enforcement or in satisfaction of any lien now existing upon, or interest in such property, so long as such real property so acquired shall remain the property of the alien, company, association or corporation acquiring the same in such manner. No alien, company, association or corporation mentioned in section two or section three hereof shall hold for

a longer period than two years the possession of any agricultural land acquired in the enforcement of or in satisfaction of a mortgage or other lien hereafter made or acquired in good faith to secure a debt.

SEC. 8. Any leasehold or other interest in real property less than the fee, hereafter acquired in violation of the provisions of this act by any alien mentioned in section two of this act, or by any company, association or corporation mentioned in section three of this act, shall escheat to the State of California. The attorney general or district attorney of the proper county shall institute proceedings to have such escheat adjudged and enforced as provided in section seven of this act. In such proceedings the court shall determine and adjudge the value of such leasehold or other interest in such real property, and enter judgment for the state for the amount thereof together with costs. Thereupon the court shall order a sale of the real property covered by such leasehold, or other interest, in the manner provided by section twelve hundred seventy-one of the Code of Civil Procedure. Out of the proceeds arising from such sale, the amount of the judgment rendered for the state shall be paid into the state treasury and the balance shall be deposited with and distributed by the court in accordance with the interest of the parties therein. Any share of stock or the interest of any member in a company, association or corporation hereafter acquired in violation of the provisions of section three of this act shall escheat to the State of California. Such escheat shall be adjudged and enforced in the same manner as provided in this section for the escheat of a leasehold or other interest in real property less than the fee.

SEC. 9. Every transfer of real property, or of an interest therein, though colorable in form, shall be void as to the state and the interest thereby conveyed or sought to be conveyed shall escheat to the state if the property interest involved is of such a character that an alien mentioned in section two hereof is inhibited from acquiring, possessing, enjoying or transferring it, and if the conveyance is made with intent to prevent, evade or avoid escheat as provided for herein.



A *prima facie* presumption that the conveyance is made with such intent shall arise upon proof of any of the following groups of facts:

(a) The taking of the property in the name of a person other than the persons mentioned in section two hereof if the consideration is paid or agreed or understood to be paid by an alien mentioned in section two hereof;

(b) The taking of the property in the name of a company, association or corporation, if the memberships or shares of stock therein held by aliens mentioned in section two hereof, together with the memberships or shares of stock held by others, but paid for or agreed or understood to be paid for by such aliens, would amount to a majority of the memberships or the issued capital stock of such company, association or corporation;

(c) The execution of a mortgage in favor of an alien mentioned in section two hereof if said mortgagee is given possession, control or management of the property.

The enumeration in this section of certain presumptions shall not be so construed as to preclude other presumptions or inferences that reasonably may be made as to the existence of intent to prevent, evade or avoid escheat as provided for herein.

SEC. 10. If two or more persons conspire to effect a transfer of real property, or of an interest therein, in violation of the provisions hereof, they are punishable by imprisonment in the county jail or state penitentiary not exceeding two years, or by a fine not exceeding five thousand dollars, or both.

SEC. 11. Nothing in this act shall be construed as a limitation upon the power of the state to enact laws with respect to the acquisition, holding or disposal by aliens of real property in this state.

SEC. 12. All acts and parts of acts inconsistent or in conflict with the provisions hereof are hereby repealed; *provided*, that—

(a) This act shall not affect pending actions or proceedings, but the same may be prosecuted and defended with the same effect as if this act had not been adopted;

(b) No cause of action arising under any law of this state shall be affected by reason of the adoption of this act whether an action or proceeding has been instituted thereon at the time of the taking effect of this act or not and actions may be brought upon such causes in the same manner, under the same terms and conditions, and with the same effect as if this act had not been adopted.

(c) This act in so far as it does not add to, take from or alter an existing law, shall be construed as a continuation thereof.

SEC. 13. The legislature may amend this act in furtherance of its purpose and to facilitate its operation.

SEC. 14. If any section, subsection, sentence, clause or phrase of this act is for any reason held to be unconstitutional, such decision shall not affect the validity of the remaining portions of this act. The people hereby declare that they would have passed this act, and each section, subsection, sentence, clause and phrase thereof, irrespective of the fact that any one or more other sections, subsections, sentences, clauses or phrases be declared unconstitutional.

## APPENDIX E

### CANADIAN IMMIGRATION ACT AND REGULATIONS

(Important Sections.)

(The most important parts of the Immigration Act are given in the following material. The complete act can be secured from the Minister of Immigration and Colonization, Ottawa, Canada.)

### CANADIAN IMMIGRATION LAW

(Consolidated.)

His Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate and House of Commons of Canada, enacts as follows:

#### SHORT TITLE

1. This Act may be cited as *The Immigration Act*.

#### INTERPRETATION

2. In this Act, and in all orders in council, proclamations and regulations made thereunder, unless the context otherwise requires,—

(a) “Minister” means the Minister of Immigration and Colonization and “Deputy Minister” means the Deputy Minister of Immigration and Colonization.

#### PROHIBITED CLASSES

3. No immigrant, passenger or other person, unless he is a Canadian citizen, or has Canadian domicile, shall be permitted to enter or land in Canada, or in case of having landed in or entered Canada shall be permitted to remain therein, who belongs to any of the following classes, hereinafter called “prohibited classes”:—

(a) Idiots, imbeciles, feeble-minded persons, epileptics, insane persons and persons who have been insane at any time previously;

(b) Persons afflicted with tuberculosis in any form or with any loathsome disease, or with a disease which is contagious or infectious, or which may become dangerous to the public health, whether such persons intend to settle in Canada or only to pass through Canada in transit to some other country: Provided that if such disease is one which is curable within a reasonably short time, such persons may, subject to the regulations in that behalf, if any, be permitted to remain on board ship if hospital facilities do not exist on shore, or to leave ship for medical treatment;

(c) Immigrants who are dumb, blind, or otherwise physically defective, unless in the opinion of a Board of Inquiry or officer acting as such they have sufficient money, or have such profession, occupation, trade, employment or other legitimate mode of earning a living that they are not liable to become a public charge or unless they belong to a family accompanying them or already in Canada and which gives security satisfactory to the Minister against such immigrants becoming a public charge;

(d) Persons who have been convicted of, or admit having committed, any crime involving moral turpitude;

(e) Prostitutes and women and girls coming to Canada for any immoral purpose and pimps or persons living on the avails of prostitution;

(f) Persons who procure or attempt to bring into Canada prostitutes or women or girls for the purpose of prostitution or other immoral purpose;

(g) Professional beggars or vagrants;

(h) Immigrants to whom money has been given or loaned by any charitable organization for the purpose of enabling them to qualify for landing in Canada under this Act, or whose passage to Canada has been paid wholly or in part by any charitable organization, or out of public moneys, unless it is shown that the authority in writing of the Deputy Minister, or in case of persons coming from Europe, the authority in writing of the assistant Superintendent of Immigration for Canada, in London, has been obtained for

the landing in Canada of such persons, and that such authority has been acted upon within a period of sixty days thereafter;

(i) Persons who do not fulfil, meet or comply with the conditions and requirements of any regulations which for the time being are in force and applicable to such persons under sections 37 or 38 of this Act;

(j) Persons who in the opinion of the Board of Inquiry or the officer in charge at any port of entry are likely to become a public charge;

(k) Persons of constitutional psychopathic inferiority;

(l) Persons with chronic alcoholism.

(m) Persons not included within any of the foregoing prohibited classes, who upon examination by a medical officer are certified as being mentally or physically defective to such a degree as to affect their ability to earn a living.

(n) Persons who believe in or advocate the overthrow by force or violence of the Government of Canada or of constituted law and authority, or who disbelieve in or are opposed to organized government, or who advocate the assassination of public officials, or who advocate or teach the unlawful destruction of property;

(o) Persons who are members of or affiliated with any organization entertaining or teaching disbelief in or opposition to organized government, or advocating or teaching the duty, necessity, or propriety of the unlawful assaulting or killing of any officer or officers, either of specific individuals or of officers generally, of the Government of Canada or of any other organized government, because of his or their official character, or advocating or teaching the unlawful destruction of property;

(p) Enemy aliens or persons who have been alien enemies and who were or may be interned on or after the eleventh day of November, one thousand nine hundred and eighteen, in any part of His Majesty's dominions or by any of His Majesty's allies;

(q) Persons guilty of espionage with respect to His Majesty or any of His Majesty's allies;

(r) Persons who have been found guilty of high treason or treason for an offence in connection with the war, or of



conspiring against His Majesty, or of assisting His Majesty's enemies during the war, or of any similar offence against any of His Majesty's allies;

(s) Persons who at any time within a period of ten years from the first day of August, one thousand nine hundred and fourteen, were or may be deported from any part of His Majesty's dominions or from any allied country on account of treason or of conspiring against His Majesty, or of any similar offence in connection with the war against any of the allies of His Majesty, or because such persons were or may be regarded as hostile or dangerous to the allied cause during the war;

(t) On and after the first day of July, one thousand nine hundred and nineteen, in addition to the foregoing "prohibited classes," the following persons shall also be prohibited from entering or landing in Canada:—Persons over fifteen years of age, physically capable of reading, who cannot read the English or the French language or some other language or dialect: Provided that any admissible person or any person heretofore or hereafter legally admitted, or any citizen of Canada, may bring in or send for his father or grandfather, over fifty-five years of age, his wife, his mother, his grandmother or his unmarried or widowed daughter, if otherwise admissible, whether such relative can read or not and such relative shall be permitted to enter. For the purpose of ascertaining whether aliens can read, the immigration officer shall use slips of uniform size prepared by direction of the Minister, each containing not less than thirty and not more than forty words in ordinary use printed in plainly legible type in the language or dialect the person may designate as the one in which he desires the examination to be made, and he shall be required to read the words printed on the slip in such language or dialect. The provisions of this paragraph shall not apply to Canadian citizens and persons who have Canadian domicile, to persons in transit through Canada, or to such persons or classes of persons as may from time to time be approved by the Minister.

4. The Minister may issue a written permit authorizing any person to enter Canada without being subject to the

provisions of this Act. Such permit shall be in the form A of the schedule to this Act, and shall be expressed to be in force for a specified period only, but it may at any time be extended or cancelled by the Minister in writing. Such extension or cancellation shall be in the form AA of the schedule to this Act.

REGULATIONS AS TO MONETARY AND OTHER REQUIREMENTS  
FROM SPECIFIED CLASSES OF IMMIGRANTS

37. Regulations made by the Governor in Council under this Act may provide as a condition to permission to enter or land in Canada, that immigrants and any of the non-immigrant classes, except classes (i) to (iii) inclusive, of paragraph (g) of section 2 of this Act, shall possess in their own right, money to a prescribed minimum amount, which amount may vary according to the nationality, race, occupation or destination of such persons and otherwise according to the circumstances; and may also provide that all persons coming to Canada directly or indirectly from countries which issue passports shall produce such passports on demand of the immigration officer in charge before being allowed to enter or land in Canada, and may provide also that passports shall not be recognized unless issued within a time limited by regulations or unless viséd in the manner required.

38. The Governor in Council may, by proclamation or order whenever he deems it necessary or expedient,—

(a) prohibit the landing in Canada or at any specified port of entry in Canada of any immigrant who has come to Canada otherwise than by continuous journey from the country of which he is a native or naturalized citizen, and upon a through ticket purchased in that country, or prepaid in Canada;

(b) prohibit the landing in Canada of passengers brought to Canada by any transportation company which refuses or neglects to comply with the provisions of this Act;

(c) prohibit or limit in number for a stated period or permanently the landing in Canada, or the landing at any specified port or ports of entry in Canada, of immigrants

belonging to any nationality or race or of immigrants of any specified class or occupation, by reason of any economic, industrial or other condition temporarily existing in Canada or because such immigrants are deemed unsuitable having regard to the climatic, industrial, social, educational, labour or other conditions or requirements of Canada or because such immigrants are deemed undesirable owing to their peculiar customs, habits, modes of life and methods of holding property, and because of their probable inability to become readily assimilated or to assume the duties and responsibilities of Canadian citizenship within a reasonable time after their entry.

39. When any immigrant or other person is rejected or ordered to be deported from Canada, and such person has not come to Canada by continuous journey from the country of which he is a native or naturalized citizen, but has come indirectly through another country which refuses to allow such person to return or be returned to it, then the transportation company bringing such person to such other country shall deport such person from Canada to the country of which he is a native or naturalized citizen whenever so directed by the Minister or Deputy Minister, and at the cost of such transportation company, and in case of neglect or refusal so to do, such transportation company shall be guilty of an offence against this Act, and shall be liable to a fine of not more than five hundred dollars and not less than twenty dollars for each such offence.

#### DEPORTATION OF PROHIBITED AND UNDESIRABLE CLASSES

40. Whenever any person, other than a Canadian citizen or person having Canadian domicile, shall be found an inmate of or connected with the management of a house of prostitution or practising prostitution, or who shall receive, share in, or derive benefit from any part of the earnings of any prostitute or who manages or is employed by, in, or in connection with any house of prostitution or music or dance hall or other place of amusement or resort habitually frequented by prostitutes, or where prostitutes gather, or who in any way assists any prostitute or protects or prom-

ises to protect from arrest any prostitute or who shall import or attempt to import any person for the purpose of prostitution or for any other immoral purpose, or who has been convicted of a criminal offence in Canada or who admits the commission prior to landing or entry to Canada, of a crime involving moral turpitude, or has become a professional beggar or a public charge or practices polygamy, or has become an inmate of a penitentiary, gaol, reformatory, prison, asylum or hospital for the insane or the mentally deficient, or an inmate of a public charitable institution, or enters or remains in Canada contrary to any provision of this Act, it shall be the duty of any officer cognizant thereof, and the duty of the clerk, secretary or other official of any municipality in Canada wherein such person may be, to forthwith send a written complaint thereof to the Minister, giving full particulars.

41. Every person who by word or act in Canada seeks to overthrow by force or violence the government of or constituted law and authority in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland or Canada, or any of the provinces of Canada, or the government of any other of His Majesty's dominions, colonies, possessions or dependencies, or advocates the assassination of any official of any of the said governments or of any foreign government, or who in Canada defends or suggests the unlawful destruction of property or by word or act creates or attempts to create any riot or public disorder in Canada, or who without lawful authority assumes any powers of government in Canada or in any part thereof, or who by common repute belongs to or is suspected of belonging to any secret society or organization which extorts money from or in any way attempts to control any resident of Canada, by force or by threat of bodily harm, or by blackmail, or who is a member of or affiliated with any organization entertaining or teaching disbelief in or opposition to organized government shall, for the purposes of this Act, be deemed to belong to the prohibited or undesirable classes, and shall be liable to deportation in the manner provided by this Act, and it shall be the duty of any officer becoming cognizant thereof and of the clerk, secretary or other official of any municipality in

Canada wherein any such person may be, forthwith to send a written complaint to the Minister, giving full particulars: Provided, that this section shall not apply to any person who is a British subject, either by reason of birth in Canada, or by reason of naturalization in Canada.

2. Proof that any person belonged to or was within the description of any of the prohibited or undesirable classes within the meaning of this section at any time since the fourth day of May, one thousand nine hundred and ten, shall, for all the purposes of this Act be deemed to establish prima facie that he still belongs to such prohibited or undesirable class or classes.

P. C. 2668

TUESDAY, the 26th day of July, 1921.

His Excellency the Administrator in Council, on the recommendation of the Minister of Immigration and Colonization, is pleased to order that the Orders in Council of the 9th May, 1910 (P. C. 924), 7th January, 1914 (P. C. 24), 29th November, 1920 (P. C. 2930), and 19th March, 1921 (P. C. 959), shall be and the same are hereby rescinded.

His Excellency the Administrator in Council, on the same recommendation and under the authority of Section 37 of the Immigration Act, 9-10 Edward VII, Chapter 27, as enacted by 11-12 George V, Chapter 32, is further pleased to make the following regulation and the same is hereby made and established accordingly:

The landing in Canada is hereby prohibited of any immigrant who does not possess in his own right the minimum amount of money hereinafter prescribed:

In the case of an immigrant of the age of 18 years or upwards the sum of \$250 and in the case of an immigrant of the age of 5 years and under the age of 18 years the sum of \$125 in addition, in each case, to ticket or sufficient money to purchase transportation to destination in Canada: Provided, that in the case of an immigrant who is the head of a family and is accompanied by one or more members of his family, the money qualification, in addition to ticket or sufficient money to purchase transportation to destination in Canada, shall be \$125 for each member of the family, (ex-



cept the head of the family who shall have \$250), of the age of 18 years or upwards, and \$50 for each member of the family of the age of 5 years and under the age of 18 years: Provided further that the Immigration officer in charge may, notwithstanding anything hereinbefore contained, exempt any immigrant from the operation of the foregoing regulation if it is shown to his satisfaction that:

(a) The immigrant, if a male, is going to assured employment at farm work, and has the means of reaching the place of such employment; or

(b) The immigrant, if a female, is going to assured employment at domestic service, and has the means of reaching the place of such employment; or

(c) The immigrant, whether male or female, is of one of the following descriptions, and is going to reside with a relative of one of the following descriptions, who is able and willing to support such immigrant and has the means of reaching the place of residence of such relative:

Wife going to husband.

Child going to parent.

Brother or sister going to brother.

Minor going to married or independent sister.

Parent going to son or daughter.

P. C. 2669

TUESDAY, the 26th day of July, 1921.

His Excellency the Administrator in Council, on the recommendation of the Minister of Immigration and Colonization, is pleased to order that the Order in Council (P. C. 918) of the 9th May, 1910, shall be and the same is hereby cancelled;

His Excellency the Administrator in Council, on the same recommendation, and under the authority of Section 37 of the Immigration Act, 9-10 Edward VII, Chapter 27, as enacted by 11-12 George V, Chapter 32, is further pleased to make the following regulation and the same is hereby made and established accordingly:

The entry or landing in Canada is hereby prohibited of any person who is not in possession of a valid passport

issued in, and by the Government of the country of which such person is a subject or citizen, and for the purposes of this regulation, such passport must be presented within one year of the date of its issue and if not a British passport must carry the vise of a British diplomatic or consular officer;

Provided, that this regulation shall not apply to British subjects coming to Canada directly or indirectly from the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, the United States of America or any self-governing British Dominion or Newfoundland; nor shall it apply to American citizens entering Canada from the United States of America; nor to persons who have been resident in the United States of America for a period of at least one year immediately prior to their entry to or landing in Canada.

P. C. 23

WEDNESDAY, the 7th day of January, 1914.

The Governor General in Council is hereby pleased to rescind and revoke the Order in Council, dated 9th May, 1910 (P. C. No. 920), and the regulation thereby made and established.

The Governor General in Council, under the authority of section 38 of the Immigration Act, 9-10 Edward VII, chapter 27, is pleased to order as follows:

From and after the date hereof the landing in Canada shall be and the same is hereby prohibited of any immigrant who has come to Canada otherwise than by continuous journey from the country of which he is a native or naturalized citizen and upon a through ticket purchased in that country or prepaid in Canada.

P. C. 919

MONDAY, the 9th day of May, 1910.

Whereas by section 71 of the Immigration Act, 9 and 10 Edward VII, it is provided as follows:

1. Every inn-keeper or boarding-house keeper in any city, town, village or place in Canada designated by any Order in

Council, who receives into his house as a boarder or lodger any immigrant within three months after his arrival in Canada, shall cause to be kept conspicuously posted in the public rooms and passages of his house, and printed upon his business cards, a list of the prices which will be charged to immigrants per day and per week for board and lodging, or both, and also the prices for separate meals, which cards shall also contain the name of the keeper of such house, together with the name of the street in which it is situate, and its number in such street.

2. No such inn-keeper or boarding-house keeper shall have any lien on the effects of such immigrant for any amount claimed for such boarding or lodging for any sum exceeding five dollars.

And whereas it is considered expedient to bring this section into force in certain places, Therefore His Excellency in Council is pleased to designate and doth hereby designate, for the purpose of the said section 71, the cities of Ottawa and Toronto, in the province of Ontario; the cities of Quebec and Montreal, in the province of Quebec; the city of Halifax, in the province of Nova Scotia; the city of St. John, in the province of New Brunswick; the city of Winnipeg, in the province of Manitoba; and the cities of Vancouver, Victoria and Prince Rupert, in the province of British Columbia, as cities in which every keeper of a tavern, hotel or boarding house therein who receives into his house as a boarder or lodger any immigrant within three months after his arrival in Canada, shall be subject to the requirements and the provisions of the said section.

P. C. 269

WEDNESDAY, the 15th day of February, 1911.

His Excellency in Council, in virtue of the provisions of section 31, of the Immigration Act, is pleased to order and it is hereby ordered as follows:

1. It shall be the duty of transportation companies to provide, equip and maintain suitable buildings for the examination and detention of passengers for any purpose under the Immigration Act at every port of entry and border station

designated by the Minister of Immigration and Colonization of Canada at which they carry on any business.

2. Any transportation company failing to comply with the foregoing regulation shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding one thousand dollars.

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The Minister has designated the following ports of entry as places to which the above Order in Council shall apply:

New Brunswick:

Debec Junction, McAdam Junction, Edmundston, St. Stephen.

Quebec:

Athelstan, Beebe Junction, Coaticook, Highwater, Stanhope, Megantic, St. Johns, Hall's Stream, Lacolle Village, Highway, D. and H. Ry.; Huntingdon, Hemmingford.

Ontario:

Bridgeburg, Cornwall, Fort Erie, Fort Frances, Niagara Falls, Port Arthur, Prescott, Sarnia, Sault Ste. Marie, Toronto, Windsor, Kingston, Brockville, Fort William, Rainy River, Walkerville, Crystal Beach, Erie Beach, Queenston, Cobourg.

Manitoba:

Bannerman, Emerson, Gretna, Sprague.

Saskatchewan:

North Portal, Northgate.

Alberta:

Coutts.

British Columbia:

Grand Forks, Huntingdon, Kingsgate, Newgate, Pacific Highway, Paterson, Waneta, White Rock.

P. C. 1204

MONDAY, the 9th day of June, 1919.

WHEREAS owing to conditions prevailing as the result of war, a widespread feeling exists throughout Canada, and more particularly in western Canada, that steps should be taken to prohibit the landing in Canada of immigrants deemed undesirable owing to their peculiar customs, habits,

modes of living and methods of holding property and because of their probable inability to become readily assimilated or to assume the duties and responsibilities of Canadian citizenship within a reasonable time after their entry;

AND WHEREAS it appears that persons commonly known as Doukhobors, Hutterites and Mennonites are of the class described;

THEREFORE His Excellency the Governor General in Council is pleased, under the authority of section 38 of the Immigration Act, 9-10 Edward VII, chapter 27, as amended by 9-10 Geo. V, chapter 25, to make the following regulation, and the same is hereby made and established accordingly:

From and after the date hereof and until otherwise ordered, the landing in Canada shall be and the same is hereby prohibited of any immigrant of the Doukhobor, Hutterite or Mennonite class.

P. C. 1203

MONDAY, the 9th day of June, 1919.

His Excellency the Governor General in Council, on the recommendation of the Minister of Immigration and Colonization, and under the authority of section 38 of the Immigration Act, 9-10 Edward VII, chap. 27, as amended by 9-10 George V, chap. 25, is pleased to make the following regulation and the same is hereby made and established accordingly:

From and after the date hereof and until otherwise ordered the landing in Canada shall be and the same is hereby prohibited of immigrants who are alien enemies or who have been alien enemies during the war; provided that this regulation shall not be held to include those races or nationalities, technically and formerly subjects of Germany, Austro-Hungary, Bulgaria or Turkey, who have declared their independence or whose independence is recognized by the Peace Conference or whose government is placed under the control of a Mandatory Power.



P. C. 1202

MONDAY, the 9th day of June, 1919.

His Excellency the Governor General in Council, on the recommendation of the Minister of Immigration and Colonization, having regard to the industrial and labour conditions in Canada, and under the authority of section 38 of the Immigration Act, 9-10 Edward VII, chapter 27, as amended by 9-10 George V, chapter 25, is pleased to make the following regulation, and the same is hereby made and established accordingly:

From and after the date hereof and until otherwise ordered the landing in Canada at any port of entry in British Columbia hereinafter specified, of any immigrant of the following classes or occupations, viz., skilled and unskilled labour, is hereby prohibited.

The following ports of entry in British Columbia are hereby designated as the ports of entry at which this order shall apply:

Vancouver,	Anyox,	Powell River,
Victoria,	Comox	Stewart,
New	Ganges Harbour,	Union Bay,
Westminster,	Ladner,	Whales Island,
Nanaimo,	Ladysmith,	Newport,
Prince Rupert,	Steveston,	Alberni,
Port Simpson,	Chemainus,	White Pass.

P. C. 3060

MONDAY, the 13th day of December, 1920.

Whereas attention has been called to the serious unemployment situation in the province of British Columbia, which particularly affects mechanics, artisans and labourers;

And whereas the Minister of Immigration and Colonization reports that these conditions are not likely to improve during the next few months;

Therefore His Excellency the Governor General in Council, on the recommendation of the Minister of Immigration

and Colonization, and under the authority of section 38 of the Immigration Act, 9-10 Edward VII, chapter 27, as amended by 9-10 George V, chapter 25, is pleased to order that the provisions of the Order in Council of the 9th June, 1919 (P. C. 1202), shall be and the same are hereby extended and made applicable to the following ports of entry:

Chilliwack,	Grand Forks,	Aldergrove,
Bridestville,	Huntingdon,	Rossland,
Chopaka,	Keremeos,	Upper Sumas,
Carson,	Kingsgate,	Waneta,
Cascade,	Myncaster,	Pacific Highway,
Osoyoos,	Midway,	White Rock,
Douglas,	Similkameen,	Mission Junction.
Gateway,	Paterson,	

P. C. 115

THURSDAY, the 22nd day of January, 1920.

His Excellency the Governor General in Council, on the recommendation of the Minister of Immigration and Colonization, and under and by virtue of the provisions of subsection "c" of section 38 of the Immigration Act, 9-10 Edward VII, is pleased to order, and it is hereby ordered, as follows, viz:

From and after the date hereof and until otherwise ordered, the landing at any port of entry in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick or Quebec, hereinafter specified, of any female immigrant unaccompanied by husband, father, mother or such other relative as the Superintendent of Emigration for Canada in London, England, may approve, is limited in number to such female immigrants as are in possession of a document known as a Sailing Permit, issued by the Superintendent of Emigration for Canada in London, England.

The following ports of entry are hereby designated as the ports of entry at which this Order shall apply:

Halifax, N. S.; St. John, N. B.; Quebec, P. Q.; Montreal, P. Q.

P. C. 1493

SATURDAY, the 30th day of April, 1920.

Whereas the Minister of Immigration and Colonization reports that in connection with the issue and renewal of Permits as provided for in section 4 of the Immigration Act, some expense and trouble is entailed.

Therefore His Excellency the Deputy Governor General in Council, on the recommendation of the Minister of Immigration and Colonization and under the general provisions of section 81 of the Immigration Act, is pleased to order that the following scale of charges shall be and the same are hereby put into effect forthwith:

- (a) For the issue or renewal of Permit for a period not exceeding twelve months in the case of any person mentally defective, a fee of \$25;
- (b) For the issue or renewal of Permit in any case other than provided for in the next preceding paragraph, a fee of \$5 when the Permit or renewal covers a period of not more than six months, and a fee of \$10 when the Permit or renewal covers a period of more than six months, but not more than twelve months.

## APPENDIX F

### IMPORTANT SECTIONS OF THE AUSTRALIAN IMMIGRATION LAW

#### THE COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA

(The Immigration Act 1901-1920)

(An Act to place certain restrictions on Immigration and to provide for the removal from the Commonwealth of prohibited Immigrants.)

Be it enacted by the King's Most Excellent Majesty, the Senate, and the House of Representatives of the Commonwealth of Australia, as follows:

1. This Act may be cited as the *Immigration Act 1901-1920*.
2. In this Act, unless the contrary intention appears,—  
“Officer” means any officer appointed under this Act, or any Officer of Customs or of the Home and Territories Department or any member of the police force of a State or Territory being part of the Commonwealth;
- 3.<sup>1</sup> The immigration into the Commonwealth of the persons described in any of the following paragraphs of this section (hereinafter called “prohibited immigrants”) is prohibited, namely:—

(a) any person who fails to pass the dictation test: that is to say, who, when an officer dictates to him not less than fifty words in any prescribed<sup>2</sup> language, fails to write them out in that language in the presence of the officer.

No regulation prescribing any language or languages shall have any force until it has been laid before both Houses of the Parliament for thirty days and,

<sup>1</sup> British subjects entering the Commonwealth may be required to take oath. See *War Precautions Act Repeal Act 1920*, No. 54, 1920, s. 9.

<sup>2</sup> Section 5 of the *Immigration Restriction Amendment Act 1905* is as follows:—“5. Until a regulation prescribing any language or languages under section three of the Principal Act as amended by this Act shall come into force, any language authorized by section three of the Principal Act before the commencement of this Act shall be deemed to be a prescribed language within the meaning of that section as so amended.”

before or after the expiration of such thirty days, both Houses of the Parliament, by a resolution, of which notice has been given, have agreed to such regulation;

- (b) any person not possessed of the prescribed certificate of health;
- (c) any idiot, imbecile, feeble-minded person, epileptic, person suffering from dementia, insane person, person who has been insane within five years previously, or person who has had two or more attacks of insanity;
- (d) any person suffering from a serious transmissible disease or defect;
- (e) any person suffering from pulmonary tuberculosis, trachoma, or with any loathsome or dangerous communicable disease, either general or local;
- (f) any person suffering from any other disease or mental or physical defect, which from its nature is, in the opinion of an officer, liable to render the person concerned a charge upon the public or upon any public or charitable institution;
- (g) any person suffering from any other disease, disability, or disqualification which is prescribed;
- (ga) any person who has been convicted of a crime and sentenced to imprisonment for one year or more, unless five years have elapsed since the termination of the imprisonment;
- (gb) any person who has been convicted of any crime involving moral turpitude, but whose sentence has been suspended or shortened conditionally on his emigration, unless five years have elapsed since the expiration of the term for which he was sentenced;
- (gc) any prostitute, procurer, or person living on the prostitution of others;
- (gd) any person who advocates the overthrow by force or violence of the established government of the Commonwealth or of any State or of any other civilized country, or of all forms of law, or who advocates the abolition of organized government,



or who advocates the assassination of public officials or who advocates or teaches the unlawful destruction of property, or who is a member of or affiliated with any organization which entertains and teaches any of the doctrines and practices specified in this paragraph;

(ge) for the period of five years after the commencement of this paragraph, and thereafter until the Governor General by proclamation otherwise determines, any person who in the opinion of an officer is of German, Austro-German, Bulgarian or Hungarian parentage and nationality, or is a Turk of Ottoman race;

(gf) any person who in the opinion of an officer is not under the age of sixteen years, and who, on demand by an officer, fails to prove that he is the holder of a passport—

(i) which was issued to him by and on behalf of the Imperial Government or any Government recognised by the Imperial Government;

(ii) which contains a personal description sufficient to identify him and to which is attached a photograph of him; and

(iii) which is still in force; and

(gg) any person who has been deported in pursuance of any Act;

But the following are excepted:—

(h) Any person possessed of a certificate of exemption as prescribed in force for the time being;

(i) members of the King's regular land or sea forces;

(j) the master and crew of any public vessel of any Government;

(k) the master and crew of any other vessel landing during the stay of the vessel in any port in the Commonwealth:

Provided that the master shall upon being so required by any officer, and before being permitted to clear out from or leave the port, muster the crew in the presence of an officer; and if it is

found that any person, who according to the vessel's articles was one of the crew when she arrived at the port, and who would in the opinion of the officer be a prohibited immigrant but for the exception contained in this paragraph, is not present, then such person shall not be excepted by this paragraph, and until the contrary is proved shall be deemed to be a prohibited immigrant and to have entered the Commonwealth contrary to this Act;

Provided also that identification cards bearing the full name, thumbprint, photograph, and prescribed description of each member of the crew, and indorsed by the master, have been produced to any officer on demand;

- (1) any person duly accredited to the Government of the Commonwealth by the Imperial or any other Government or sent by any Government on any special mission.

\* \* \* \*

3A.—(1.) The Governor General may establish Commonwealth Medical Bureaus at such places outside the Commonwealth as he thinks fit.

(2.) The Minister may appoint a chief Medical Officer to be in charge of a Commonwealth Medical Bureau and such other officers in connection with the Bureau as he thinks necessary.

3B.—(1.) The Minister may appoint duly qualified medical practitioners to be medical referees for the purposes of this Act at such places outside or within the Commonwealth as he thinks fit.

3C. The Minister may authorize a list of questions to be put to and answered by an intending immigrant on his examination by a medical referee.

3D.—(1.) An intending immigrant shall be examined as to his physical and mental fitness by a medical referee, and shall answer the authorized list of questions put to him by the medical referee, who shall, if he is satisfied that the intending

immigrant is of sound health, issue to him, on payment of the prescribed fee, a certificate of health in the prescribed form.

(2.) Where an intending immigrant embarks at a port where there is no medical referee, he shall prior to his departure, be examined as to his physical and mental fitness by the ship's medical officer, and shall answer the authorized list of questions put to him by the ship's medical officer, who shall, if he is satisfied that the intending immigrant is of sound health, issue to him, on payment of the prescribed fee, a certificate of health in the prescribed form.

4A.—(1.) If the Minister notifies by notice in the *Gazette* that an arrangement has been made with the Government of any country regulating the admission to the Commonwealth of the subjects or citizens of that country, the subjects or citizens of that country shall not, while the notice continues to have effect, be required to pass the dictation test.

(2.) The Minister shall not issue any such notice until the arrangement has been sanctioned by resolution of both Houses of the Parliament.

(3.) Any such notice shall cease to have effect upon the Minister notifying, by notice in the *Gazette*, that it is cancelled.

4AA. If the Minister notifies, by notice in the *Gazette*, that an arrangement has been made with the Government of any country under which persons who are British subjects or subjects or citizens of that country, are not, when proceeding from that country to the Commonwealth, or from the Commonwealth to that country, required to be in possession of passports, persons who are British subjects or subjects or citizens of that country shall not be subject to the prohibition contained in paragraph (gf) of section three of this Act.

4B.—(1.) Any person who has resided in Australia for a period or periods in the aggregate of not less than five years, and who is about to depart from the Commonwealth, may in manner prescribed apply to an officer authorized in that behalf for a certificate in the prescribed form excepting him, if he returns to the Commonwealth within the period limited

in the certificate, from the provisions of paragraph (a) of section three of this Act.

(2.) The officer may in his discretion give the certificate on payment of the prescribed fee, or, without assigning any reason, withhold it.

6. Any prohibited immigrant within the meaning of paragraph (a) only of section three may if thought fit by an officer be allowed to enter the Commonwealth or to remain within the Commonwealth upon the following conditions:—

(a) He shall on entering the Commonwealth or on failing to pass the dictation test, deposit with an officer the sum of One hundred pounds.

(b) He shall within thirty days after depositing such sum obtain from the Minister a certificate of exemption as prescribed or depart from the Commonwealth, and thereupon the deposit shall be returned; but otherwise the deposit or any part thereof may be forfeited and he shall be deemed to be a prohibited immigrant offending against this Act.

7. Every prohibited immigrant entering or found within the Commonwealth in contravention or evasion of this Act shall be guilty of an offence against this Act, and shall be liable upon summary conviction to imprisonment for not more than six months, and in addition to or substitution for such imprisonment shall be liable pursuant to any order of the Minister to be deported from the Commonwealth.

8. Any person who is not a British subject either natural-born or naturalized under a law of the United Kingdom or of the Commonwealth or of a State, and who is convicted of any crime of violence against the person, shall be liable, upon the expiration of any term of imprisonment imposed on him therefor, to be required to pass the dictation test, and if he fails to do so shall be deemed to be a prohibited immigrant and shall be deported from the Commonwealth pursuant to any order of the Minister.

8A.—(1.) Where the Minister is satisfied that, within three years after the arrival in Australia of a person who was not born in Australia, that person—

(a) has been convicted in Australia of a criminal offence punishable by imprisonment for one year or longer;

- (b) is living on the prostitution of others;
- (c) has become an inmate of an insane asylum or public charitable institution; or
- (d) is a person who advocates the overthrow by force or violence of the established government of the Commonwealth or of any State, or of any other civilized country, or of all forms of law, or who advocates the abolition of organized government, or who advocates the assassination of public officials or who advocates or teaches the unlawful destruction of property, or who is a member of, or affiliated with, any organization which teaches any of the doctrines and practices specified in this paragraph,

he may, by notice in writing, summon the person to appear before a Board within the time and in the manner prescribed, to show cause why he should not be deported from the Commonwealth.

16. The Governor General may make regulations, not inconsistent with this Act, prescribing all matters which by this Act are required or permitted to be prescribed or which are necessary or convenient to be prescribed for carrying out or giving effect to this Act, and in particular—

- (a) for empowering officers to determine whether any person is a prohibited immigrant or an immigrant;
- (b) imposing and regulating charges for certificates granted under this Act or the regulations;
- (c) prescribing the forms of certificates to be granted under this Act or the regulations; and
- (d) for preventing members of the crew of a ship from beyond the Commonwealth from landing unless they satisfy an officer that they are free from a communicable disease.



## APPENDIX G

### THE ARGENTINE IMMIGRATION LAW

The immigration and colonization law of the Argentine Republic which was enacted in 1876 provides for the encouragement of immigration through agents in Europe and America, and makes liberal provision for the reception, care, and maintenance of immigrants. It provides for a central bureau of immigration and commissions of immigration at the capital of each Province, at certain ports of arrival, and, if necessary, at any other place. The law also provides for the establishment of employment bureaus, which, under the direction of the bureau of immigration or the local commissions, shall assist immigrants to find work and act as their advisers in other matters.

Some of the principal sections of the law relating directly to immigrants and the methods of handling and assisting them are presented herewith.

Chapter 5, on immigrants, is as follows:

SEC. 12. Foreigners of both sexes, of good moral character and under the age of sixty years, whether day laborers, or capable of exercising a trade, or of working in an industrial establishment, farmers, or teachers, who come to the Republic for the purpose of settling on its soil, and have arrived either on board a sailing vessel or a steamer as a second or third class passenger, or have had their passage paid by the nation, by some one of the provinces, or by some private colonization board or association, shall be, for all the purposes of the present law, deemed to be immigrants.

SEC. 13. Those, however, who may be unwilling, for reasons of their own, to be considered as such immigrants, even if they shall have all the qualifications required by the preceding section, shall be permitted to set forth their wishes, either before starting on their voyage, by representing to the captain or master of the vessel, who shall be bound to make a record of it in his books, that they waive all their rights

and privileges as immigrants, or after their arrival in the Argentine Republic by making a declaration to the same effect before the proper authorities. In both cases said passengers shall be deemed to be ordinary travelers.

This provision, nevertheless, shall not be applicable to those persons coming to the Republic, under proper contracts, to settle on its territory, whether in any colony or elsewhere.

SEC. 14. Every immigrant who gives sufficient evidence of his good moral character and shows his aptitude to engage in any industrial business, or in any trade or useful occupation, shall be entitled, upon his arrival in the country, to the following:

First. To be lodged and supported at the expense of the nation for the time set forth in sections 45, 46, and 47 of the present law (five days, to be counted from the date of landing, if the immigrant is in good health, and in case of illness which prevents his removal at the expiration of five days, as many days as the illness may last. But immigrants under contract shall have board and lodging gratuitously until sent to their destination).

Second. To be given occupation in any such branch of labor or industry existing in the country as he may wish to engage in.

Third. To be carried at the expense of the nation, to any place of the Republic in which he may wish to establish his domicile.

Fourth. To be allowed to introduce, free from duty, his wearing apparel, household furniture, agricultural implements, tools, instruments of his particular trade or art, and a fowling-piece for each adult immigrant up to the amount fixed by the executive.

SEC. 15. The foregoing provisions shall be applicable, as far as possible, to the wives and children of the immigrants.

SEC. 16. The good moral conduct and industrial ability of the immigrant may be proved by certificates issued either by the Argentine consul or immigration agent at the place from which the immigrant comes, or by the local authorities of the same place. In the latter case the certificates must be authenticated either by the consul or the immigration agent.

SEC. 17. All immigrants, farmers, who come under con-

tracts to settle on any of the colonies established in the Republic, and engage therein in agricultural pursuits, or who in the absence of such contracts are willing to go to the said colonies for the same purposes, shall be given the same special privileges and advantages in regard to the payment of passages, concessions of land, facilities for the cultivation of the lands, etc., as are granted under Chapter III, part second, of the present law.

Chapter 6 contains provisions calculated to insure the safety and comfort of the immigrants and to prevent abuses on the part of masters or captains of the ships.

Chapter 7 provides for national supervision of the landing of immigrants.

Chapter 8 is concerned with the lodging and board of immigrants and provides as follows:

SEC. 45. The immigrants shall be entitled to proper, decent boarding and lodging at the expense of the nation during the five days immediately following their landing.

SEC. 46. In case of grave disease, which rendered it impossible for the immigrant, at the expiration of the said five days, to move from that place, he shall be allowed to remain there, and the Government shall continue to attend to his lodging and support until he recovers.

SEC. 47. The foregoing provisions shall not be applicable to such immigrants as come to the country under contracts made and entered into between them and the nation to settle in the colonies, said immigrants being entitled to gratuitous boarding and lodging until they are sent to their places of destination.

Chapter 9 deals with securing occupation for immigrants and their transportation to the localities where they are to settle.

SEC. 51. Whenever an immigrant expresses his wish to reside in any province or colony of the Republic he shall immediately be transported free, together with his family and baggage, to the locality selected by him.

SEC. 52. If he has chosen to reside in any of the provinces, he shall be supported by the respective commissions of immigration until reaching the place of destination during 10 days. At the expiration of this time each person over 8

years shall pay half a dollar a day and each child under that age 25 cents, but in cases of grave sickness the State shall continue to pay as long as it lasts.

SEC. 53. If the immigrant has chosen to go to a colony, he shall be granted all the advantages to which colonists are entitled under the present law.

Chapter 10 provides for the creation of "an immigrant fund" consisting, first, of all moneys appropriated by Congress to encourage immigration; second, of all moneys collected through the office of lands and colonies; third, of all fines imposed for violations of the immigration law; fourth, of all moneys the immigrants themselves may pay under the provisions of this law.

#### LAW REGULATING COLONIZATION.

The second section of the law, containing seven chapters, is devoted to the subject of colonization.

Chapter 3 provides that in the establishment of colonies the first 100 colonists who are farmers and the heads of families shall be given gratuitously 100 hectares of land, or **about** 247 acres. The remaining rural lots shall be sold at the rate of \$2 a hectare, to be paid in 10 instalments, the first not payable until the end of the second year.

The sales may be limited to the fourth of one lot, and can never exceed four lots to one purchaser.

The office of lands and colonies shall advance the money necessary for the payment of the passage of the colonists from the place of embarkation to destination, also for their lodging, support, the animals which they may require for breeding or working purposes, as well as seeds and implements, all of this for one year at least. But the sums so advanced shall never exceed \$1,000 per colonist, and shall be repaid to the Government in five instalments, the first of which shall not be due until after the expiration of the third year.

The law further provides that lands may be reserved for private colonization companies; it being required that at least 40 agricultural families shall be brought in and settled upon the land within two years.

Each one of these families shall be the owner, either through donation or purchase, of at least 50 hectares of land, and are to be provided with proper lodgings, implements of labor, animals for working and breeding purposes, seeds, and board for at least one year, the actual value of which shall be paid back by them, with 20 per cent additional and interest at 10 per cent per annum, in easy instalments, after the third year.

Chapter 5 empowers the executive by all possible means to encourage the development of agriculture, and make gratuitous concessions of lands to those colonists who have distinguished themselves by their steady work and exceptional industry. But no more than two lots shall be granted in this way to the same person.

Each colonist shall be entitled, within the first six years of his establishment in the country, to a reward of \$10 for each 1,000 trees 2 years old which he has planted and has growing on his property.

The national colonies shall be exempt from direct taxation of all kinds during the first 10 years of their existence as colonies.

The agricultural implements, seeds, tools, furniture, and arms imported for the use of immigrants shall be introduced into the colonies free from duty.

Chapter 7 encourages colonization by granting gratuitous transportation of the colonists, by giving \$200 for each 100 families settled in the province, and by other liberal measures.

It will be seen from the foregoing that it is a comparatively simple matter for immigrants to become land owners in the Republic. According to the census of 1895, out of a total of 180,000 farms in operation, 60 per cent were being cultivated by their owners, 30 per cent were being worked by tenants paying rent, and 8 per cent by persons working the land on shares. The tremendous growth of the area under cultivation has been due to the great increase in the immigration of agricultural peasants from Europe. During the years 1857-1905 the total immigration was 2,065,869, while for the year 1908 alone it was more than 250,000, largely from the south of Europe.



## APPENDIX H

### SECTIONS OF NEW ZEALAND IMMIGRATION ACT 1920

#### GENERAL

Every person of and over the age of fifteen years who lands in New Zealand must, unless exempted by the Attorney-General, make and deliver to an officer of Customs a declaration giving his or her name, occupation, and residence, and also the following particulars if the immigrant is not a permanent resident in New Zealand returning thereto after not more than twelve months' absence: Country of birth; age; names and places of birth of his parents; particulars as to his nationality, his intention as to permanent residence in or departure from New Zealand, and his purpose in coming thereto.

#### RECEPTION OF AND DEALING WITH ASSISTED IMMIGRANTS

On arrival in New Zealand the immigrants are met on board by officers of the Immigration Department who accompany the Port Health Officer to the ship. While the ship is in the stream it is the special duty of such officers to afford to the assisted immigrants all necessary information as regards transhipment, &c. Arrangements are made for safety and transhipment of luggage.

Each immigrant is seen as he passes towards the doctor for examination, and is handed an official letter containing information as to where his ticket will be arranged for, and the place and time of departure of his connecting train or boat (if any). The immigrant is also requested to see the Immigration Officer on board, or to come to the office, which is near the wharf in Wellington (Union Steamship Company's building), if he requires information or advice beyond what is given in the letter. The addresses of the dis-

strict agencies of the Labor Department in the larger centres of the Dominion are also supplied to male assisted immigrants. It is the practise of the Department to send out advices, by wire if necessary, to friends and relatives of immigrants about to arrive, and to get back information as to where the newcomers will be met. These messages, often together with private letters, &c., are given out on board to those to whom they are addressed. Information of this nature is much appreciated, especially by wives joining their husbands.

Assisted immigrants requiring work are referred to the office of the Immigration Department, and their cases are there dealt with.

As regards the female assisted domestic workers, who are chosen after application at Home to the High Commissioner, and who are sent to New Zealand under the supervision of one or more responsible matrons, the following applies:—

The Government advertises the fact that the books of the Department are open to record the names of those people in the Dominion desirous of securing the services of an assisted girl. Such advertisements bring into the office many applications, especially pending the arrival of a ship.

Each matron in charge on board is instructed to classify the girls under two heads: (a) those with work already arranged or friends to go to; (b) those without either friends or work. On arrival they are met by the Girls' Superintendent of the Immigration Department. Arrangements are made for sending to their destination those girls who are going to friends or to definite positions. Those requiring accommodation are directed to homes or hostels approved by the Minister of Immigration for this purpose. The Superintendent then separately considers the case of each girl, and arranges to place her with an applicant for a Government assisted girl. In placing these girls at present, considerable reliance has necessarily to be placed on the statements made by them. The Department is, however, taking steps to get full and independent details of the work that the girl was actually engaged in before she left the Mother-country. After a girl has been placed, the Department endeavours to keep in touch with her by correspondence.

## IMMIGRATION RESTRICTION

The legislation respecting the restriction of immigration into New Zealand is contained in the Immigration Restriction Act, 1908, and its amendments, and the Undesirable Immigrants Exclusion Act, 1919.

## PROHIBITED IMMIGRANTS

The following persons or classes of persons are prohibited from landing in New Zealand:—

- (1.) Persons not of British birth and parentage who are unable to write out and sign in any European language a prescribed form of application;
- (2.) Idiots or insane persons;
- (3.) Persons suffering from contagious diseases which are loathsome or dangerous;
- (4.) Persons arriving in New Zealand within two years after the termination of a period of imprisonment for a serious offense.

The above provisions do not apply to (a) His Majesty's land and sea forces, (b) the officers and crew of any ship of war of any Government, (c) persons duly accredited to the Government of New Zealand by the Imperial or any other Government, (d) shipwrecked persons, (e) the officers and crew of any mercantile vessel who leave New Zealand with that vessel, (f) persons exempted by the Governor-General in Council or by the Minister of Internal Affairs.

- (5.) Chinese (not naturalized in New Zealand), unless they pay a poll-tax of £100 and are able to read a printed passage of not less than 100 words of the English language selected by the Collector of Customs.

The officers and crews of any ship of war of the Chinese Government and members of the crew of any mercantile vessel who leave New Zealand by that vessel, are exempted from these provisions. There is power to exempt any other persons or classes of persons under such conditions as the Minister of Customs may prescribe.

- (6.) Persons who have at any time been subjects of the State of Germany or of Austria-Hungary as those States existed on the 4th August, 1914, except under a license issued by the Attorney-General.
- (7.) Persons not permanently resident in New Zealand who are disaffected or disloyal and of such a character that their presence in New Zealand would be injurious to the peace, order, and good government of the Dominion, and whom the Attorney-General on that account prohibits from landing.

#### RESTRICTED IMMIGRANTS

When persons arrive in New Zealand who are lunatic, idiotic, deaf, dumb, blind, or infirm,, and are likely to become a charge upon the public or upon any public or charitable institution, the master, owner, or charterer of the ship by which such persons come to New Zealand must enter into a bond for £100 for each such person, guaranteeing his support and maintenance for five years.

His Majesty's land and sea forces, persons brought to New Zealand either wholly or partly at the expense of the Government, shipwrecked mariners brought to New Zealand by another vessel without charge, and persons domiciled in New Zealand are exempted from these provisions. General power is given to exempt other persons in special cases and under such conditions as the Minister of Customs may prescribe.

#### NATURALIZATION

When any alien residing in New Zealand desires to be naturalized he may present to the Governor-General a memorial signed and verified by a statutory declaration setting forth—

His name, age, birthplace, residence, and occupation;  
The length of his residence in New Zealand, and his desire to settle therein;

A request that letters of naturalization may be granted to him.

Every memorial must have written upon it or attached to it a certificate signed by some Magistrate or Justice to the effect that the applicant is known to the person certifying and is of good repute. On taking the oath of allegiance he shall enjoy within New Zealand all the rights and capacities that a natural-born subject of the United Kingdom can enjoy or transmit, excepting such rights (if any) as are specially excepted in the letters of naturalization granted to him.

Any person who has been previously naturalized in the United Kingdom or any British possession may obtain letters of naturalization in New Zealand upon presentation of his certificate or letters to the Governor-General, with satisfactory evidence of his *bona fides*.

An alien woman married to a natural-born or naturalized British subject shall be deemed to be herself naturalized. Where the father (or the mother, being a widow) has become naturalized in New Zealand, every child of such father or mother who during minority resides with such parent shall also be deemed to be naturalized.

No fee is payable for naturalization except in the case of Chinese, who are charged £1.

The issue of letters of naturalization, which was suspended during the war, was resumed during November, 1919, in regard to aliens from countries which, in the recent war, were either neutral or allied with Great Britain.

The Revocation of Naturalization Act of 1917 provided that the Governor-General may, by Order in Council, revoke the naturalization of any person when such revocation is considered desirable on grounds of public policy.

#### REGISTRATION OF ALIENS

The Registration of Aliens Act passed in 1917 provided for the registration of all persons of the age of fifteen or over who are not British subjects either by birth or by naturalization in New Zealand. The Government Statistician is charged with the duty of compiling and keeping the register, but the actual registration is effected by Registration Officers (mostly police officers) throughout the Dominion. Every alien not less than fifteen years of age is required to make



application for registration to a Registration Officer, and is required to supply the following particulars concerning himself or herself:—

- (a) Name in full:
- (b) Nationality (and if nationality is not the nationality of origin, nationality of origin):
- (c) Place of birth:
- (d) Age, and date of birth:
- (e) Whether married, single, widower, widow, or divorced:
- (f) If married, the name, age, nationality of origin, and place of abode of wife or husband:
- (g) If married, a widower, a widow, or divorced, number, names, and ages of children (if any):
- (h) Occupation:
- (i) Date of arrival in New Zealand:
- (j) Place of abode and postal address:
- (k) Whether permanently resident in New Zealand:
- (l) If not permanently resident in New Zealand, place of permanent residence, and date of projected departure from New Zealand:
- (m) Such other particulars as may from time to time be prescribed by regulations under the Act.

Upon receipt of an application for registration the Registration Officer issues a certificate of registration, and forwards the application in duplicate to the Superintendent of Police for the district, who files one copy and sends the other on to the Commissioner of Police for transmission to the Government Statistician. Registered aliens are required to notify change of address on pain of a penalty not exceeding £20. Failure to register involves a fine on conviction not exceeding £50. .

# APPENDIX I—STATISTICAL

1—Immigrant Aliens Admitted, Fiscal Years Ended June 30, 1899<sup>1</sup> to 1921, by Race or People

Race or people	1899	1900	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905	1906	1907	1908	1909	1910
African (black).....	412	714	594	832	2,174	2,386	3,598	3,786	5,235	4,626	4,307	4,966
Armenian.....	674	982	1,855	1,151	1,759	1,745	1,878	1,745	2,644	3,299	3,108	5,508
Bohemian and Moravian (Czech).....	2,526	3,060	3,766	5,590	9,591	11,911	11,757	12,958	12,554	10,164	6,850	8,462
Bulgarian, Serbian, and Montenegrin.....	94	204	611	1,291	6,479	4,577	5,823	11,548	27,174	18,246	6,214	15,130
Chinese.....	1,638	1,250	2,452	1,631	2,192	4,327	1,971	1,885	770	1,263	1,841	1,770
Croatian and Slovenian.....	8,632	17,184	17,928	30,233	32,907	21,242	35,104	47,826	47,826	20,472	20,181	39,562
Cuban.....	1,374	2,678	1,622	2,423	2,944	4,811	7,259	5,591	5,475	3,323	3,380	3,331
Dalmatian, Bosnian, and Herzegovinian.....	367	675	732	1,004	1,736	2,036	2,639	4,568	7,393	3,747	1,888	4,911
Dutch and Flemish.....	1,860	2,702	3,299	4,117	6,496	7,832	8,498	9,735	12,467	9,526	8,114	13,012
East Indian.....	15	9	20	84	83	258	145	271	1,072	1,710	337	1,782
English.....	10,712	10,897	13,488	14,942	28,451	41,479	50,865	45,079	51,126	49,056	39,021	53,498
Finnish.....	6,097	12,612	9,999	13,868	18,864	10,157	17,012	14,136	14,860	6,746	11,687	15,736
French.....	2,273	2,095	4,036	4,122	7,166	11,557	11,347	10,379	9,392	12,881	19,423	21,107
German.....	26,632	29,682	34,742	51,686	71,782	74,790	82,360	86,813	92,926	73,038	58,534	71,380
Greek.....	2,395	3,773	5,919	8,115	14,376	12,625	12,144	23,127	46,283	28,808	20,262	39,135
Hebrew.....	37,415	60,764	58,098	57,688	76,203	106,236	129,910	153,748	149,182	103,387	57,551	84,260
Irish.....	32,345	35,607	30,404	29,001	35,366	37,076	54,266	40,959	38,706	36,427	31,185	38,382
Italian (north).....	13,091	17,316	22,103	27,620	37,429	36,989	39,930	46,286	51,564	24,700	125,150	30,780
Italian (south).....	65,639	84,346	115,704	152,915	196,117	159,329	186,399	240,528	242,497	110,547	65,248	192,673
Japanese.....	3,395	12,628	5,249	14,455	20,041	14,382	11,021	14,243	30,824	16,418	3,275	2,798
Korean.....	22	71	47	28	564	1,907	4,929	127	39	26	11	19
Lithuanian.....	6,858	10,311	8,815	11,629	14,432	12,780	18,604	14,257	25,884	13,720	15,254	22,714
Mayar.....	5,700	13,777	13,311	23,610	27,124	23,883	46,030	44,261	60,071	24,378	28,704	27,302
Mexican.....	163	261	350	715	486	447	227	141	91	5,682	15,591	17,760
Pacific Islander.....	172	188	167	160	185	41	22	13	3	2	7	61
Polish.....	28,466	46,938	43,617	69,620	82,343	67,757	102,437	95,835	138,033	68,105	77,565	128,343
Portuguese.....	2,096	4,241	4,176	5,309	8,433	6,338	4,855	8,729	9,648	6,809	4,605	7,657
Romanian.....	96	398	761	2,033	4,740	4,364	7,818	11,425	19,200	9,629	8,041	14,199
Russian.....	1,774	1,200	672	1,551	3,608	3,961	3,746	5,814	16,807	17,111	10,038	17,294
Ruthenian (Russiak).....	1,400	2,832	5,288	7,533	9,843	9,592	14,473	16,257	24,081	12,361	15,808	27,907
Scandinavian (Norwegians, Danes, and Swedes).....	23,249	32,952	40,277	55,780	79,347	61,029	62,284	58,141	53,425	32,789	34,996	52,037

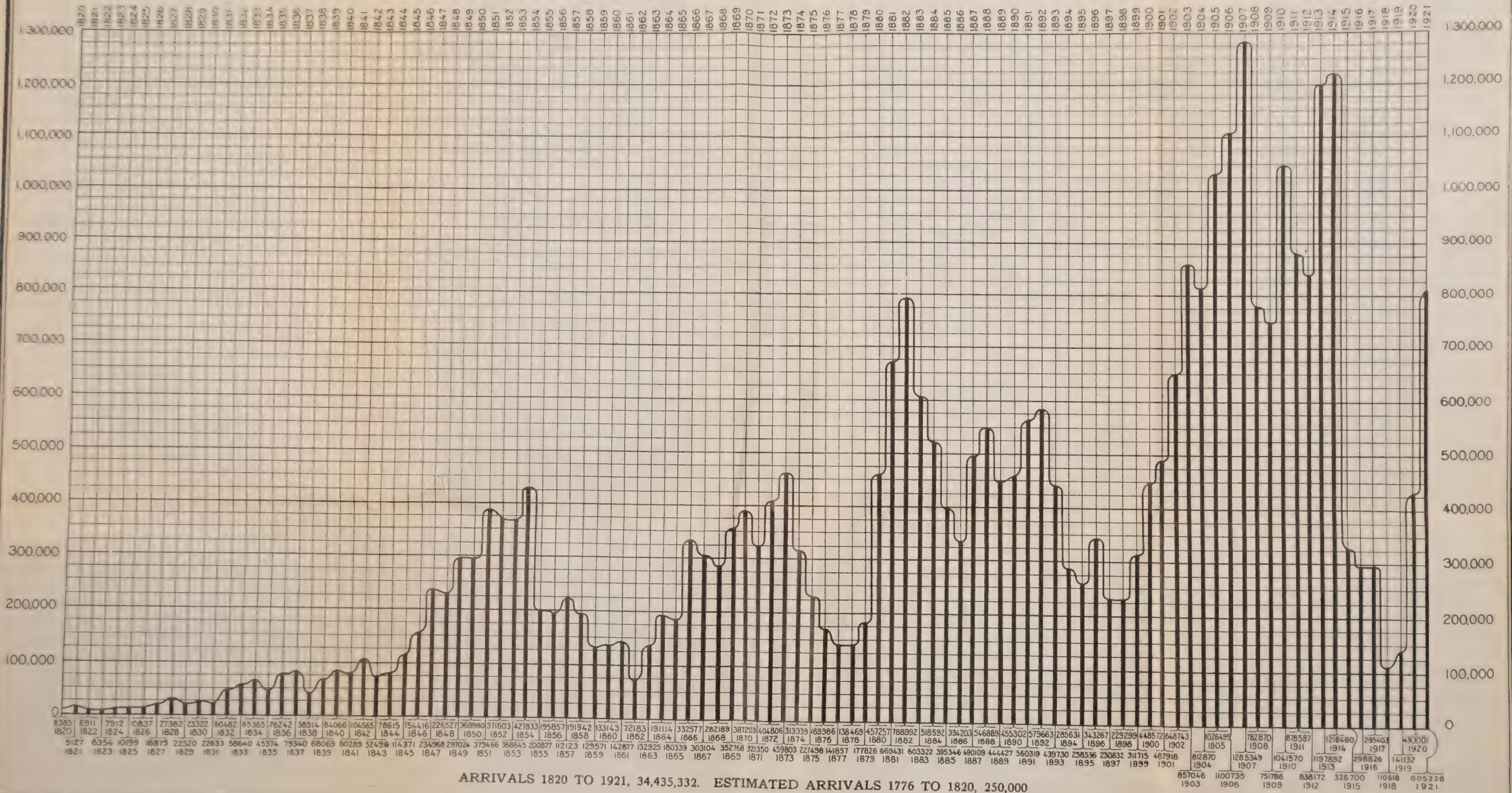


# CHART I

## WAVE OF IMMIGRATION into the United States, FROM ALL COUNTRIES, during the past 102 YEARS

PREPARED BY  
BUREAU OF IMMIGRATION  
W. W. HUSBAND  
Commissioner General

Figures denoting immigration for the years 1832, 1843, 1850, 1857, represent respectively 15 month, 9 month, 15 month and 6 month periods, while 12 month periods for those years have been approximated in the graphic representation.





1—IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED, FISCAL YEARS ENDED JUNE 30, 1899<sup>1</sup> TO 1921, BY RACES OR PEOPLES—Continued

Scotch.....	1,752	1,757	2,004	2,432	6,219	11,483	16,144	16,463	20,516	17,014	16,446	24,612
Slovak.....	15,838	29,243	29,343	36,934	34,427	27,940	52,367	38,221	42,041	16,170	22,586	32,416
Spanish.....	996	1,111	1,202	1,954	3,297	4,662	5,590	5,332	9,495	6,636	4,939	5,837
Spanish American.....	110	97	276	496	978	1,666	1,658	1,585	1,060	1,063	899	900
Syrian.....	3,708	2,920	4,064	4,982	5,551	3,653	4,822	5,824	5,880	5,520	3,668	6,317
Turkish.....	28	184	136	165	449	1,482	2,145	2,033	1,902	2,327	820	1,283
Welsh.....	1,359	762	674	760	1,278	1,820	2,531	2,367	2,754	2,504	1,699	2,244
West Indian (except Cuban).....	144	78	82	137	1,497	1,942	1,548	1,476	1,381	1,110	1,024	1,150
Other peoples.....	193	73	35	147	89	668	351	1,027	2,058	1,530	1,537	3,330
Total.....	311,715	448,572	487,918	648,743	857,046	812,870	1,026,499	1,100,735	1,285,349	782,870	751,786	1,041,570

<sup>1</sup> Alien arrivals previous to July 1, 1898, were not recorded by race or people.



1—IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED, FISCAL YEARS ENDED JUNE 30, 1899<sup>1</sup> TO 1921, BY RACES OR PEOPLES—Continued

Race or people	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	Total
African (black).....	6,721	6,759	6,634	8,447	5,660	4,576	7,971	5,706	5,823	8,174	9,873	109,974
Armenian.....	3,092	5,222	9,353	7,785	932	964	1,221	221	282	2,762	10,212	68,544
Bohemian and Moravian (Czech).....	9,223	8,439	11,091	9,928	1,651	642	327	74	105	415	1,743	143,827
Bulgarian, Serbian and Monte- negrin.....	10,222	10,657	9,087	15,084	3,506	3,146	1,134	150	205	1,064	7,700	159,346
Chinese.....	1,307	1,608	2,022	2,354	2,469	2,239	1,843	1,576	1,697	2,148	4,017	45,870
Croatian and Slovenian.....	18,982	24,366	42,499	37,284	1,942	791	305	33	23	493	11,035	473,396
Cuban.....	3,914	3,155	3,099	3,539	3,402	3,442	3,428	1,179	1,169	1,510	1,523	73,571
Dalmatian, Bosnian and Herzegovinian.....	4,400	3,672	4,520	5,149	305	114	94	15	4	63	930	50,962
Dutch and Flemish.....	13,862	10,935	14,507	12,566	6,675	6,443	5,353	2,200	2,735	12,730	12,813	188,517
East Indian.....	517	165	188	172	82	80	69	61	68	160	353	7,701
English.....	57,258	49,689	55,522	51,746	38,662	36,168	32,246	12,980	26,889	58,366	54,827	882,767
Finnish.....	9,779	6,641	12,756	12,805	3,472	5,649	5,900	1,867	1,968	1,510	4,233	217,354
French.....	18,132	18,382	20,652	18,166	12,636	19,518	24,405	6,840	12,598	27,890	24,122	318,624
German.....	66,471	65,343	80,865	79,871	20,729	11,555	9,652	1,992	1,837	7,338	24,168	1,124,226
Greek.....	37,021	31,566	38,644	45,881	15,187	26,792	25,919	2,602	813	13,998	31,828	487,213
Hebrew.....	91,223	80,595	101,330	138,051	26,497	15,108	17,342	3,672	3,055	14,292	119,036	1,684,643
Irish.....	40,246	33,922	37,023	33,898	23,503	20,636	17,462	4,657	7,910	20,784	39,056	718,821
Italian (north).....	30,312	26,443	42,534	44,802	10,660	4,905	3,796	1,074	1,236	12,918	27,459	578,807
Italian (south).....	159,638	135,830	231,613	251,612	46,557	33,909	35,154	5,234	2,137	84,882	195,037	3,093,536
Japanese.....	4,575	6,172	8,302	8,941	8,609	8,711	8,925	10,168	10,056	9,279	7,531	239,998
Korean.....	17,027	14,078	24,647	21,584	2,638	599	479	135	160	422	829	257,856
Lithuanian.....	19,996	23,599	30,610	44,538	3,604	981	434	32	52	252	9,377	471,626
Magyar.....	18,784	22,001	10,954	13,089	10,993	17,198	16,438	17,602	28,844	51,042	29,603	278,462
Mexican.....	12	3	11	1	6	5	10	17	6	17	13	1,122
Pacific Islander.....	71,446	85,163	174,365	122,657	9,065	4,502	3,109	668	732	2,519	21,146	1,444,436
Polish.....	7,469	9,403	13,566	9,647	4,376	12,208	10,194	2,319	1,574	15,174	18,856	177,683
Portuguese.....	5,311	8,329	13,451	24,070	1,200	953	522	155	89	898	1,436	5,925
Roumanian.....	18,721	22,558	51,472	44,957	4,459	4,858	3,711	1,513	1,532	2,378	2,887	242,622
Russian (Russniak).....	17,724	21,965	30,588	36,727	2,933	1,365	1,211	49	103	258	958	261,256
Ruthenian (Norwegians, Scandinavian and Swedes).....	45,859	31,601	38,737	36,053	24,263	19,172	19,596	8,741	8,261	16,621	25,812	861,022

1—IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED, FISCAL YEARS ENDED JUNE 30, 1899<sup>1</sup> TO 1921, BY RACES OR PEOPLES—Continued

Scotch.....	25,625	20,293	21,293	18,997	14,310	13,515	13,350	5,204	10,364	21,180	24,649	325,622
Slovak.....	21,415	25,281	27,234	25,819	2,069	577	244	35	85	3,824	35,047	519,157
Spanish.....	8,068	9,070	9,042	11,064	5,705	9,259	15,019	7,909	4,224	23,594	27,448	181,453
Spanish American.....	1,153	1,342	1,363	1,544	1,667	1,881	2,587	2,231	3,092	3,934	3,325	34,898
Syrian.....	5,414	5,525	9,210	9,023	1,767	676	976	210	231	3,047	5,105	98,123
Turkish.....	918	1,336	2,015	2,693	273	216	454	24	18	140	353	21,394
Welsh.....	2,248	2,239	2,820	2,558	1,390	983	793	278	608	1,462	1,748	37,879
West Indian (except Cuban).....	1,141	1,132	1,171	1,396	823	948	1,363	732	1,223	1,546	1,553	24,603
Other peoples.....	3,323	3,660	3,038	3,830	1,877	3,388	2,097	314	247	1,345	3,237	37,394
Total.....	878,587	838,172	1,197,892	1,218,480	326,706	298,826	295,403	110,618	141,132	430,001	805,228	16,096,712

<sup>1</sup> Alien arrivals previous to July 1, 1898, were not recorded by race or people.

*2—Immigrant Aliens Admitted, Fiscal Years Ended June 30, 1899 to 1921, by Countries*

Countries	1899	1900	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905	1906	1907	1908	1909	1910
Austria.....	62,491	114,847	113,390	171,989	206,011	177,156	111,990	111,598	144,992	82,983	80,953	135,793
Hungary.....		1,196	1,579	2,577	3,450	3,976	163,703	153,540	193,460	85,526	89,338	122,944
Belgium.....	1,101	108	657	851	1,761	1,325	5,099	5,099	6,396	4,162	3,692	5,402
Bulgaria.....	52						2,043	4,666	11,359	10,827	1,054	4,737
Czechoslovakia.....												
Denmark.....	2,690	2,926	3,655	5,660	7,158	8,525	8,970	7,741	7,243	4,954	4,395	6,984
Finland.....												
France, including Corsica.....	1,694	1,739	3,150	3,117	5,578	9,406	10,168	9,886	9,731	8,788	6,672	7,383
Germany.....	17,476	18,507	21,651	28,304	40,086	46,380	40,574	37,564	37,807	32,309	25,540	31,283
Greece.....	2,333	3,771	5,910	8,104	14,090	11,343	10,515	19,489	36,580	21,489	14,111	25,888
Italy, including Sicily and Sardinia.....	77,419	100,135	135,996	178,375	230,622	193,296	221,479	273,120	285,731	128,503	183,218	215,537
Netherlands.....	1,029	1,735	2,349	2,284	3,998	4,916	4,954	4,946	6,637	5,946	4,698	7,534
Norway.....	6,705	9,575	12,248	17,484	24,461	23,808	25,064	21,730	22,133	12,412	13,627	17,538
Poland.....												
Portugal, including Cape Verde and Azores Islands.....	2,054	4,234	4,165	5,307	9,317	6,715	5,028	8,517	9,608	7,307	4,956	8,229
Roumania.....	1,606	6,459	7,155	7,196	9,310	7,087	4,437	4,476	4,384	5,228	1,590	2,145
Russia.....	60,982	90,787	85,257	107,347	136,093	145,141	184,897	215,665	258,943	156,711	120,460	186,792
Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes, Kingdom of.....												
Spain, including Canary and Balearic Islands.....	385	355	592	975	2,080	3,996	2,600	1,921	5,784	3,899	2,616	3,472
Sweden.....	12,797	18,650	23,331	30,894	46,028	27,763	26,591	23,310	20,589	12,809	14,474	23,745
Switzerland.....	1,326	1,152	2,201	2,344	3,983	5,023	4,269	3,846	3,748	3,281	2,694	3,533
Turkey in Europe.....	80	285	387	187	1,529	4,344	4,542	9,510	20,767	11,290	9,015	18,405
United Kingdom:												
England.....		9,951	12,214	13,575	26,219	38,626	64,709	49,491	56,637	47,031	32,809	46,706
Ireland.....		35,730	30,561	29,138	35,310	36,142	52,945	34,995	34,530	30,556	25,033	29,855
Scotland.....		1,792	2,070	2,560	6,143	11,092	16,977	15,866	19,740	13,506	12,400	20,115
Wales.....		764	701	763	1,275	1,730	2,503	1,841	2,660	2,287	1,584	2,120
Other Europe.....	6	2	18	37	5	143	13	48	107	97	46	151
Total Europe.....	297,349	424,700	469,237	619,068	814,507	767,933	974,273	1,018,365	1,199,566	691,901	654,875	926,291

2—IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED, FISCAL YEARS ENDED JUNE 30, 1899 TO 1921, BY COUNTRIES—Continued

China.....	1,660	1,247	2,459	1,649	2,209	4,309	2,166	1,554	961	1,397	1,943	1,968
Japan.....	2,844	12,635	5,269	14,270	19,968	14,264	10,331	13,835	30,226	15,803	3,111	2,720
India.....	17	9	22	93	94	261	190	216	898	1,040	203	1,696
Turkey in Asia.....	4,436	3,962	5,782	6,223	7,118	5,235	6,157	6,354	8,053	9,753	7,506	15,212
Other Asia.....	15	93	61	36	577	2,117	5,081	351	386	372	141	1,937
<b>Total Asia.....</b>	<b>8,972</b>	<b>17,946</b>	<b>13,593</b>	<b>22,271</b>	<b>29,966</b>	<b>26,186</b>	<b>23,925</b>	<b>22,300</b>	<b>40,524</b>	<b>28,365</b>	<b>12,904</b>	<b>23,533</b>
<b>Africa.....</b>	<b>51</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>173</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>176</b>	<b>686</b>	<b>757</b>	<b>712</b>	<b>1,486</b>	<b>1,411</b>	<b>858</b>	<b>1,072</b>
Australia, Tasmania, and New Zealand.....	456	214	325	384	1,150	1,461	2,091	1,682	1,947	1,098	839	998
Pacific Islands (not specified).....	354	214	173	182	199	94	75	51	42	81	53	99
British North America.....	1,322	396	540	636	1,058	2,837	2,168	5,063	19,918	38,510	51,941	56,555
Central America.....	159	42	150	305	678	714	1,195	1,140	970	1,217	930	893
Mexico.....	161	237	347	709	528	1,009	2,637	1,997	1,406	6,067	16,251	18,691
South America.....	89	124	203	337	589	1,667	2,576	2,757	2,779	2,315	1,906	2,151
West Indies.....	2,585	4,656	3,176	4,711	8,170	10,193	16,641	13,656	16,689	11,888	11,180	11,244
Other countries.....	217	13	1	103	25	90	161	33,012	22	17	49	43
<b>Grand total.....</b>	<b>311,715</b>	<b>448,572</b>	<b>487,918</b>	<b>648,743</b>	<b>857,046</b>	<b>812,870</b>	<b>1,026,499</b>	<b>1,100,735</b>	<b>1,285,349</b>	<b>82,870</b>	<b>751,786</b>	<b>1,041,570</b>

2—IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED, FISCAL YEARS ENDED JUNE 30, 1899 TO 1921, BY COUNTRIES—Continued

Countries	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	Total
Austria.....	82,129	85,854	137,245	134,831	9,215	3,171	887	53	26	288	4,947	3,231,505
Hungary.....	76,928	93,028	117,580	143,321	9,296	2,020	401	8	27	84	7,702	83,844
Belgium.....	5,711	4,169	7,405	5,763	2,399	386	398	73	268	6,574	6,166	62,558
Bulgaria.....	4,695	4,447	1,753	9,189	1,403	764	151	19	22	90	585	44,310
Czechoslovakia.....												
Denmark.....	7,555	6,191	6,478	6,262	3,312	3,322	2,744	1,630	1,352	3,137	6,260	119,144
Finland.....												
France, including Corsica.....	8,022	8,628	9,675	9,296	4,811	4,156	3,187	1,798	3,379	8,945	9,552	148,261
Germany.....	32,061	27,788	34,329	35,734	7,799	2,877	1,857	447	52	1,001	6,803	538,299
Greece.....	26,226	21,449	22,817	35,832	12,592	27,034	23,974	1,910	386	11,981	28,502	386,326
Italy, including Sicily and Sardinia.....	182,882	157,134	265,542	283,738	49,688	33,665	34,596	5,250	1,884	95,145	222,260	3,555,215
Netherlands.....	8,358	6,619	6,902	6,321	3,144	2,910	2,235	944	1,098	5,187	6,493	101,237
Norway.....	13,950	8,675	8,587	8,329	7,986	5,191	4,689	2,578	1,995	4,445	7,423	280,603
Poland.....												
Portugal, including Cape Verde and Azores Islands.....	8,374	10,230	14,171	10,898	4,907	12,259	9,975	2,224	1,222	15,472	19,195	184,364
Roumania.....	2,522	1,997	2,155	4,032	481	90	66	59	19	1,890	25,817	100,201
Russia.....	158,721	162,395	291,040	255,660	26,187	7,842	12,716	4,242	1,403	995	6,398	2,676,674
Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, Kingdom of.....												
Spain, including Canary and Balearic Islands.....	5,074	6,327	6,167	7,591	2,762	5,769	10,232	4,295	1,573	18,821	23,818	121,104
Sweden.....	20,780	12,688	17,202	14,800	6,585	6,248	6,368	2,298	2,343	5,862	9,171	385,226
Switzerland.....	3,458	3,505	4,104	4,211	1,742	663	911	331	381	3,788	7,106	67,597
Turkey in Europe.....	14,438	14,481	14,128	8,199	1,008	313	152	15	10	1,933	6,391	141,409
United Kingdom: England.....	52,426	40,408	43,363	35,864	21,562	12,896	8,354	2,037	5,163	27,871	33,431	33,431
Ireland.....	29,112	25,879	27,876	24,688	14,185	8,639	5,406	331	474	9,591	28,435	1,525,541
Scotland.....	18,796	14,578	14,290	10,682	4,668	2,655	1,868	260	1,283	9,347	15,954	15,954
Wales.....	2,162	2,162	2,745	2,183	1,007	512	513	219	351	1,253	1,757	1,757
Other Europe.....	377	243	371	967	1,180	1,717	1,463	42	16	1,735	4,894	13,678
Total Europe.....	764,757	718,875	1,055,855	1,058,391	197,919	145,699	133,083	31,063	24,627	246,295	652,364	13,886,993



2—IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED, FISCAL YEARS ENDED JUNE 30, 1899 TO 1921, BY COUNTRIES—Continued

China.....	1,460	1,765	2,105	2,502	2,660	2,460	2,237	1,795	1,964	2,330	4,009	48,799
Japan.....	4,520	6,114	8,281	8,929	8,613	8,680	8,991	10,213	10,064	9,432	7,878	236,991
India.....	524	175	179	221	161	112	109	130	171	300	511	7,332
Turkey in Asia.....	10,229	12,788	23,955	21,716	3,543	1,670	393	43	19	5,033	11,735	176,915
Other Asia.....	695	607	838	905	234	282	1,026	520	456	410	901	18,041
Total Asia.....	17,428	21,449	35,358	34,273	15,211	13,204	12,756	12,701	12,674	17,505	25,034	483,078
Africa.....	956	1,009	1,409	1,539	934	894	566	299	189	648	1,301	17,193
Australia, Tasmania and New Zealand.....	984	794	1,229	1,336	1,282	1,484	1,014	925	1,234	2,066	2,191	27,184
Pacific Islands (not speci- fied).....	59	104	111	110	117	90	128	165	76	119	90	2,786
British North America.....	56,850	55,990	73,802	86,139	82,215	101,551	105,399	32,452	57,782	90,025	72,317	995,446
Central America.....	1,193	1,242	1,473	1,622	1,252	1,135	2,073	2,220	2,589	2,360	2,254	27,806
Mexico.....	19,889	23,238	11,926	14,614	12,340	18,425	17,869	18,524	29,818	52,361	30,758	296,802
South America.....	3,049	2,989	4,248	5,869	3,801	4,286	6,931	3,343	3,271	4,112	5,015	64,407
West Indies.....	13,403	12,467	12,458	14,451	11,598	12,027	15,507	8,879	8,826	13,808	13,774	251,987
Other countries.....	39	15	23	136	31	31	77	47	46	702	130	35,030
Grand total.....	878,587	838,172	1,197,892	1,218,480	326,700	298,826	295,403	110,618	141,132	430,001	805,228	16,096,712

<sup>2</sup> The totals for Austria and Hungary, respectively, for the 17 years in which they were separated, are as follows: Austria, 1,126,805; Hungary, 1,258,906.

<sup>3</sup> The totals for England, Ireland, Scotland and Wales, respectively, for the 22 years in which they were separated, are as follows: England, 681,343; Ireland, 529,411; Scotland, 216,572; Wales, 33,092.

3—Emigrant Aliens Departed, Fiscal Years Ended June 30, 1908<sup>1</sup> to 1921, by Races or Peoples

Race or people	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	Total
African (black).....	889	1,104	926	913	1,288	1,671	1,805	1,644	1,684	1,497	1,291	976	1,275	1,807	18,770
Armenian.....	234	561	521	999	676	676	1,250	1,444	659	133	1,238	11	584	605	8,633
Bohemian and Moravian (Czech).....	1,051	746	943	1,208	1,149	871	1,011	219	42	59	455	412	259	564	8,989
Bulgarian, Serbian and Montenegrin.....	5,965	2,422	2,720	2,716	7,349	13,525	5,780	2,354	290	325	918	3,241	23,844	9,940	85,145
Chinese.....	3,898	3,397	2,383	2,712	2,550	2,250	2,059	1,959	2,148	1,799	2,239	2,062	2,961	5,253	37,673
Croatian and Slovenian.....	28,889	9,014	7,133	13,735	13,963	10,209	14,440	2,381	76	24	31	154	7,481	3,306	110,536
Cuban.....	2,089	1,243	1,556	2,224	1,963	1,264	947	2,536	1,454	2,395	1,141	898	1,598	1,059	22,377
Dalmatian, Bosnian and Herzegovinian.....	1,046	515	432	935	927	849	878	105	4	6	13	2	1,533	909	8,154
Dutch and Flemish.....	1,198	903	1,192	1,689	1,816	2,145	2,252	1,340	742	742	698	1,356	3,016	2,405	21,494
East Indian.....	124	48	80	75	164	213	143	162	91	136	154	106	162	137	1,795
English.....	5,320	5,061	6,508	9,432	10,341	10,794	11,187	10,372	7,826	6,316	12,810	9,406	11,659	11,622	128,654
Finnish.....	3,463	1,427	1,276	4,219	4,148	3,053	2,941	845	643	1,256	1,596	497	1,447	2,480	29,191
French.....	3,063	2,862	4,029	3,400	4,189	4,019	2,830	5,799	2,297	2,829	5,427	5,472	7,026	3,836	57,173
German.....	14,418	13,541	13,303	15,243	15,026	11,871	11,377	2,749	873	767	563	343	4,178	6,770	111,622
Greek.....	6,763	6,275	8,314	11,134	13,323	31,556	11,266	9,767	4,855	2,082	2,852	15,562	20,319	13,470	138,138
Hebrew.....	7,702	6,105	5,689	6,401	7,418	6,697	6,826	1,524	199	329	687	373	358	483	50,791
Irish.....	2,441	2,059	2,472	3,300	4,086	4,458	4,889	2,948	1,851	1,736	3,071	1,934	4,635	2,535	42,215
Italian (north).....	19,507	16,658	13,431	14,208	13,006	10,995	12,663	7,539	4,020	3,478	1,041	1,195	8,159	11,447	137,348
Italian (south).....	147,828	69,781	41,772	62,009	96,381	79,057	72,767	89,969	68,981	10,016	8,135	36,980	80,955	37,032	937,163
Japanese.....	5,323	3,903	4,377	3,351	1,501	733	794	825	780	722	1,558	2,127	4,238	4,352	34,584
Korean.....	188	114	137	41	55	44	43	47	29	45	77	23	14	33	890
Lithuanian.....	3,388	1,990	1,812	2,430	4,141	3,276	5,522	988	28	38	45	6	719	4,507	28,890
Magyar.....	29,276	11,507	10,533	18,975	17,575	11,496	14,254	2,262	394	123	41	10	14,619	12,457	143,522
Mexican.....	173	158	210	319	325	910	1,670	573	559	759	25,084	17,793	6,412	5,519	60,464
Pacific Islander.....	7	4	1	1	1	4	2	5	3	4	6	2	2	3	47
Polish.....	46,727	19,290	16,884	31,952	37,764	24,107	35,028	7,912	358	119	1,035	153	18,392	42,207	281,928
Portuguese.....	898	816	906	1,388	1,747	1,583	1,848	2,185	2,185	1,313	2,016	3,525	4,899	5,144	30,754
Romanian.....	5,264	1,352	1,834	5,230	5,824	3,156	3,897	899	138	61	60	60	21,490	8,603	57,809
Russian.....	7,507	5,125	5,682	8,439	9,744	10,548	17,491	11,256	4,716	6,393	4,926	1,717	1,151	11,085	105,780
Ruthenian (Rusniak).....	3,310	1,672	1,719	3,838	5,551	5,327	5,049	860	17	21	25	2	693	465	25,519
Scandinavian (Norwegians, Danes and Swedes).....	5,801	7,257	5,032	8,036	10,380	9,291	8,073	3,473	3,954	4,550	4,665	4,865	8,246	6,944	90,567

3—EMIGRANT ALIENS DEPARTED, FISCAL YEARS ENDED JUNE 30, 1908<sup>1</sup> TO 1921, BY RACES OR PEOPLES—Continued

Scotch.....	1,596	1,618	1,992	3,083	3,456	4,118	3,923	2,714	2,096	1,618	3,307	1,687	2,577	2,027	35,812
Slovak.....	23,573	8,894	9,259	15,561	12,526	9,854	11,786	1,398	74	34	453	1,150	11,568	17,625	123,755
Spanish.....	1,977	1,834	2,323	2,518	2,569	3,181	3,214	4,347	2,792	3,624	4,182	7,489	5,144	4,961	50,065
Spanish American.....	333	305	387	374	343	457	542	560	516	612	736	799	1,126	1,536	8,626
Syrian.....	1,700	1,204	1,077	1,173	972	797	1,200	433	120	110	160	132	1,652	1,599	12,329
Turkish.....	1,276	725	1,058	1,633	1,366	1,297	890	208	41	54	58	275	1,340	713	10,934
Welsh.....	163	171	195	255	301	298	395	253	214	130	263	156	195	167	3,156
West Indian (except Cuban).....	375	394	388	344	530	584	677	480	603	520	426	336	626	656	6,939
Other peoples.....	630	1,874	806	862	1,113	1,118	1,470	511	769	504	1,001	235	1,802	1,457	14,132
Not specified.....	.....	11,873	20,644	25,540	15,201	19,838	17,819	16,888	10,744	9,098	.....	.....	.....	.....	147,645
Total.....	305,073	225,802	202,436	295,666	333,262	308,190	303,338	204,074	129,765	66,277	94,585	123,522	288,315	247,718	3,218,023

<sup>1</sup> Alien departures previous to July 1, 1907, were not recorded by race or people

4—Emigrant Aliens Departed, Fiscal Years Ended June 30, 1908 to 1921, by Countries

Countries	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	Total
Austria.....	64,607	27,782	26,424	45,160	46,137	28,760	35,013	6,776	230	126	5	201	2,274	1,399	284,894
Hungary.....	65,590	21,631	20,866	41,182	42,423	29,904	39,987	5,059	592	112	1	100	14,233	12,153	293,833
Belgium.....	853	431	655	1,017	1,103	803	1,149	333	24	15	41	634	1,846	1,430	10,334
Bulgaria.....	3,280	1,564	1,566	3,154	3,577	9,664	2,553	1,964	250	191	700	2,891	3,587	3,923	37,884
Czechoslovakia.....	689	460	433	469	665	608	629	412	513	489	304	599	1,147	15,452	26,599
Denmark.....	3,107	2,817	4,025	3,148	3,473	3,430	2,927	5,751	2,231	2,064	3,176	3,792	1,477	2,386	8,669
Finland.....	6,770	4,905	6,216	6,042	5,785	4,759	5,136	1,419	439	315	28	26	4,477	3,026	3,859
France, including Corsica.....	6,131	5,606	8,144	9,376	11,461	30,603	11,124	9,775	4,829	2,034	2,986	15,482	20,314	5,263	47,444
Greece.....	166,733	83,300	52,323	72,640	108,388	88,021	84,351	96,903	72,507	12,542	8,645	38,245	88,909	13,423	50,172
Italy, including Sicily and Sardinia.....	330	308	463	461	564	599	690	612	351	227	139	586	1,017	849	151,288
Netherlands.....	2,275	1,328	1,028	1,400	2,310	1,710	2,797	1,211	1,359	1,633	1,730	1,952	3,022	2,406	1,021,699
Norway.....	1,056	1,025	1,082	1,459	1,916	1,965	2,055	2,661	2,396	1,353	1,976	3,447	4,738	5,167	7,206
Poland.....	1,267	434	445	669	550	319	348	244	49	16	7	39	21,506	9,297	26,161
Portugal, including Cape Verde and Azores Islands.....	37,777	19,707	17,362	27,053	34,681	26,923	47,451	18,297	5,259	5,947	4,983	1,868	1,933	15,229	60,762
Roumania.....															
Russia.....															
Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, Kingdom of.....															
Spain, including Canary and Balearic Islands.....	1,116	1,079	1,463	1,396	1,581	2,029	2,254	3,042	1,816	2,491	3,250	6,280	3,841	3,966	32,283
Sweden.....	2,574	1,159	1,006	1,615	2,490	1,988	2,240	963	1,412	969	1,169	1,738	3,109	2,913	32,283
Switzerland.....	684	688	759	667	510	449	432	349	201	159	172	403	1,103	900	25,336
Turkey in Europe.....	3,084	1,267	1,988	4,688	5,926	4,809	2,628	164	18	24	24	47	1,812	405	26,784
United Kingdom:															
England.....	5,019	3,076	4,554	5,441	6,700	5,969	7,275	7,715	5,130	2,798	1,239	4,482	8,099	7,839	75,336
Ireland.....	2,023	1,380	1,754	1,984	3,082	2,894	3,632	2,218	1,304	1,027	280	988	3,735	1,905	28,206
Scotland.....	1,499	743	1,099	1,528	2,195	2,179	2,464	1,847	1,332	678	141	569	1,488	1,187	18,949
Wales.....	87	51	84	145	183	157	234	169	118	69	24	54	141	180	1,698
Other Europe.....	5	6	16	10	22	16	26	80	49	88	480	98	1,429	827	3,152
Total Europe.....	376,566	190,747	153,755	230,704	285,724	248,559	257,295	167,954	107,409	35,367	31,500	84,531	256,433	215,245	2,626,779

4—EMIGRANT ALIENS DEPARTED, FISCAL YEARS ENDED JUNE 30, 1908 TO 1921, BY COUNTRIES—Continued

China.....	3,923	3,411	2,371	2,762	2,609	2,303	2,112	2,011	2,203	1,871	2,352	2,199	3,102	5,451	38,680
Japan.....	3,431	3,819	4,366	3,354	1,485	731	756	840	770	750	1,583	2,195	4,249	4,375	32,704
India.....	128	48	69	92	182	240	164	179	123	176	229	161	189	281	2,261
Turkey in Asia.....	1,847	1,650	1,548	1,905	1,551	1,313	2,243	593	14	8	5	26	1,731	2,534	16,968
Other Asia.....	221	205	150	59	104	103	167	214	867	356	212	79	170	246	3,163
Total Asia.....	9,550	9,133	8,514	8,172	5,931	4,690	5,442	3,837	3,977	3,161	4,381	4,660	9,441	12,887	83,776
Africa.....	133	140	215	275	266	209	196	85	93	108	100	74	121	197	2,212
Australia, Tasmania and New Zealand.....	241	442	345	474	645	645	745	608	445	382	36	362	490	742	6,602
Pacific Islands, not specified.....	33	38	31	30	43	29	30	17	10	35	418	19	29	50	812
British North America.....	2,629	30,478	34,194	49,373	33,506	46,981	31,818	23,225	15,712	18,994	27,170	10,726	7,668	5,456	337,930
Central America.....	505	302	390	347	328	482	437	436	495	530	489	413	602	703	6,459
Mexico.....	295	289	363	463	605	991	1,724	651	532	812	25,515	18,000	6,606	5,705	62,551
South America.....	880	925	1,073	1,183	1,319	1,367	1,376	988	997	993	1,071	914	1,398	1,647	16,131
West Indies.....	4,247	3,306	3,519	4,584	4,864	4,223	4,237	6,243	5,059	5,891	3,891	3,806	5,502	5,050	64,422
Other countries.....	4	2	37	61	31	14	38	30	36	4	14	17	25	36	349
Grand total.....	395,073	225,802	202,436	295,666	333,262	308,190	303,338	204,074	129,765	66,277	94,585	123,522	288,315	247,718	3,218,023



*5—Increase or Decrease in Population by Arrival and  
Departure of Aliens, During the Fiscal Year  
Ended June 30, 1921, by Races or People*

Race or people	Admitted			Departed			Increase (+) or decrease (-)
	Immi- grant	Non- immi- grant	Total	Emi- grant	Non- emi- grant	Total	
African (black).....	9,873	5,112	14,985	1,807	3,122	4,929	+10,056
Armenian.....	10,212	360	10,572	605	168	773	+9,799
Bohemian and Moravian (Czech)	1,743	145	1,888	564	136	700	+1,188
Bulgarian, Serbian and Monte- negrin.....	7,700	995	8,695	9,940	1,104	11,044	-2,349
Chinese.....	4,017	18,974	22,991	5,253	19,455	24,708	-1,717
Croatian and Slovenian.....	11,035	246	11,281	3,306	165	3,471	+7,810
Cuban.....	1,523	7,605	9,128	1,059	8,639	9,698	-570
Dalmatian, Bosnian and Herze- govinian.....	930	50	980	909	215	1,124	-144
Dutch and Flemish.....	12,813	4,064	16,877	2,405	5,264	7,669	+9,208
East Indian.....	353	108	461	137	71	208	+253
English.....	54,627	30,655	85,282	11,622	38,686	50,308	+34,974
Finnish.....	4,233	343	4,576	2,480	1,477	3,957	+619
French.....	24,122	7,203	31,325	3,836	6,855	10,691	+20,634
German.....	24,168	3,333	27,501	6,770	3,577	10,347	+17,154
Greek.....	31,828	1,407	33,235	13,470	2,001	15,471	+17,764
Hebrew.....	119,036	2,190	121,226	483	1,227	1,710	+120,516
Irish.....	39,056	5,045	44,101	2,535	3,786	6,321	+37,780
Italian (north).....	27,459	2,656	30,115	11,447	4,659	16,106	+14,009
Italian (south).....	195,037	19,620	214,657	37,032	11,035	48,067	+166,590
Japanese.....	7,531	6,743	14,274	4,352	11,193	15,545	-1,271
Korean.....	61	24	85	33	62	95	-10
Lithuanian.....	829	31	860	4,507	278	4,785	-3,925
Magyar.....	9,377	351	9,728	12,457	773	13,230	-3,502
Mexican.....	29,603	17,191	46,794	5,519	2,383	7,902	+38,892
Pacific Islander.....	13	13	26	1	40	41	-15
Polish.....	21,146	4,616	25,762	42,207	2,594	44,801	-19,039
Portuguese.....	18,856	764	19,620	5,144	2,026	7,170	+12,450
Roumanian.....	5,925	721	6,646	8,603	975	9,578	-2,932
Russian.....	2,887	494	3,381	11,085	1,318	12,403	-9,022
Ruthenian (Russniak).....	958	157	1,115	465	18	483	+632
Scandinavian (Norwegians, Danes and Swedes).....	25,812	9,565	35,377	6,944	11,605	18,549	+16,828
Scotch.....	24,649	6,579	31,228	2,027	4,571	6,598	+24,630
Slovak.....	35,047	822	35,869	17,625	1,441	19,066	+16,803
Spanish.....	27,448	7,035	34,483	4,961	18,532	23,493	+10,990
Spanish American.....	3,325	4,048	7,373	1,536	5,157	6,693	+680
Syrian.....	5,105	723	5,828	1,599	654	2,253	+3,575
Turkish.....	353	30	383	713	129	842	-459
Welsh.....	1,748	644	2,392	167	339	506	+1,886
West Indian (except Cuban).....	1,553	1,884	3,397	656	1,986	2,642	+755
Other peoples.....	3,237	429	3,666	1,457	597	2,054	+612
Total.....	805,228	172,935	978,163	247,718	178,313	426,031	+552,132

## 6—Total Immigration Each Year, 1820 to 1921

Period	Number	Period	Number
<b>Year ended Sept. 30—</b>		<b>Year ended June 30—<i>Con.</i></b>	
1820.....	8,385	1869.....	352,768
1821.....	9,127	1870.....	387,203
1822.....	6,911	1871.....	321,350
1823.....	6,354	1872.....	404,806
1824.....	7,912	1873.....	459,803
1825.....	10,199	1874.....	313,339
1826.....	10,837	1875.....	227,498
1827.....	18,875	1876.....	169,986
1828.....	27,382	1877.....	141,857
1829.....	22,520	1878.....	138,469
1830.....	23,322	1879.....	177,826
1831.....	22,633	1880.....	457,257
Oct. 1, 1831, to Dec. 31, 1832	60,482	1881.....	669,431
<b>Year ended Dec. 31—</b>		1882.....	788,992
1833.....	58,640	1883.....	603,322
1834.....	65,365	1884.....	518,592
1835.....	45,374	1885.....	395,346
1836.....	76,242	1886.....	334,203
1837.....	79,340	1887.....	490,109
1838.....	38,914	1888.....	546,889
1839.....	68,069	1889.....	444,427
1840.....	84,066	1890.....	455,302
1841.....	80,289	1891.....	560,319
1842.....	104,565	1892.....	579,663
Jan. 1 to Sept. 30, 1843.....	52,496	1893.....	439,730
<b>Year ended Sept. 30—</b>		1894.....	285,631
1844.....	78,615	1895.....	258,536
1845.....	114,371	1896.....	343,267
1846.....	154,416	1897.....	230,832
1847.....	234,968	1898.....	229,299
1848.....	226,527	1899.....	311,715
1849.....	297,024	1900.....	448,572
1850.....	310,004	1901.....	487,918
Oct. 1 to Dec. 31, 1850.....	59,976	1902.....	648,743
<b>Year ended Dec. 31—</b>		1903.....	857,046
1851.....	379,466	1904.....	812,870
1852.....	371,603	1905.....	1,026,499
1853.....	368,645	1906.....	1,100,735
1854.....	427,833	1907.....	1,285,349
1855.....	200,877	1908.....	782,870
1856.....	195,857	1909.....	751,786
Jan. 1 to June 30, 1857.....	112,123	1910.....	1,041,570
<b>Year ended June 30—</b>		1911.....	878,587
1858.....	191,942	1912.....	838,172
1859.....	129,571	1913.....	1,197,892
1860.....	133,143	1914.....	1,218,480
1861.....	142,877	1915.....	326,700
1862.....	72,183	1916.....	298,826
1863.....	132,925	1917.....	295,403
1864.....	191,114	1918.....	110,618
1865.....	180,339	1919.....	141,132
1866.....	332,577	1920.....	430,001
1867.....	303,104	1921.....	805,228
1868.....	282,189		
		<b>Total .....</b>	<b>34,435,332</b>

*7—Last Permanent Residence of Immigrant Aliens  
Admitted and Future Permanent Residence of  
Emigrant Aliens Departed, During the Six  
Months Ended December 31, 1920,  
by Countries*

Countries	Immigrant	Emigrant
Austria.....	1,269	887
Hungary.....	575	7,480
Belgium.....	4,627	783
Bulgaria.....	227	2,010
Czechoslovakia, Republic of.....	22,029	8,732
Denmark.....	3,536	600
Finland, Republic of.....	2,127	1,421
France, including Corsica.....	6,112	1,859
Germany.....	2,940	3,476
Greece.....	16,326	7,999
Italy, including Sicily and Sardinia.....	111,323	29,711
Netherlands.....	3,716	501
Norway.....	4,281	1,601
Poland, Republic of.....	45,623	20,810
Portugal, including Cape Verde and Azore Islands.....	15,172	2,239
Roumania.....	10,417	6,185
Russia.....	2,770	5,912
Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes, Kingdom of the.....	10,879	7,802
Spain, including Canary and Balearic Islands.....	21,133	2,352
Sweden.....	5,625	1,781
Switzerland.....	4,167	622
Turkey in Europe.....	4,424	169
United Kingdom:		
England.....	21,883	5,575
Ireland.....	15,698	1,654
Scotland.....	7,921	930
Wales.....	1,122	153
Other Europe.....	3,191	438
<b>Total Europe.....</b>	<b>349,113</b>	<b>123,682</b>
China.....	1,930	2,446
Japan.....	4,124	2,194
India.....	237	197
Turkey in Asia.....	6,969	1,725
Other Asia.....	516	211
<b>Total Asia.....</b>	<b>13,776</b>	<b>6,773</b>
Africa.....	692	115
Australia, Tasmania, and New Zealand.....	1,323	404
Pacific Islands, not specified.....	61	25
British North America.....	41,367	3,026
Central America.....	1,663	372
Mexico.....	21,280	1,406
South America.....	3,111	891
West Indies.....	8,955	2,893
Other countries.....	103	31
<b>Grand total.....</b>	<b>441,444</b>	<b>139,618</b>

8a—*Net Increase of Population by Arrival and Departure of Aliens, Fiscal Years Ended June 30, 1908 to 1921*

	Admitted			Departed			Increase
	Immigrant	Nonimmigrant	Total	Emigrant	Nonemigrant	Total	
1908.....	782,870	141,825	924,695	395,073	319,755	714,828	209,867
1909.....	751,786	192,449	944,235	225,802	174,590	400,392	543,843
1910.....	1,041,570	156,467	1,198,037	202,436	177,982	380,418	817,619
1911.....	878,587	151,713	1,030,300	295,666	222,549	518,215	512,085
1912.....	838,172	178,983	1,017,155	333,262	282,030	615,292	401,863
1913.....	1,197,892	229,335	1,427,227	308,190	303,734	611,924	815,303
1914.....	1,218,480	184,601	1,403,081	304,338	330,467	633,805	769,276
1915.....	326,700	107,544	434,244	204,074	180,100	384,174	50,070
1916.....	298,826	67,922	366,748	129,765	111,042	240,807	125,941
1917.....	295,403	67,474	362,877	66,277	80,102	146,379	216,498
1918.....	110,618	101,235	211,853	94,585	98,683	193,268	18,585
1919.....	141,132	95,889	237,021	123,522	92,709	216,231	20,790
1920.....	430,001	191,575	621,576	288,315	139,747	428,062	193,514
1921.....	805,228	172,935	978,163	247,718	178,313	426,031	552,132
Total...	9,117,265	2,039,947	11,157,212	3,218,023	2,691,803	5,909,826	5,247,386

8b—NET INCREASE OR DECREASE OF POPULATION BY ARRIVAL AND DEPARTURE OF ALIENS DURING THE FISCAL YEAR ENDED JUNE 30, 1921, BY MONTHS

Month and year	Admitted			Departed			Increase (+) or decrease (—)
	Immigrant	Non-immigrant	Total	Emigrant	Non-emigrant	Total	
1920							
July.....	62,832	21,127	83,959	27,565	11,940	39,505	+44,454
August.....	67,369	18,062	85,431	29,979	18,749	48,728	+36,703
September.....	76,031	18,821	94,852	18,983	13,523	32,506	+62,346
October.....	82,164	21,105	103,269	20,618	19,429	40,047	+63,222
November.....	73,458	15,766	89,224	18,467	15,919	34,386	+54,838
December.....	79,590	13,643	93,233	24,006	17,929	41,935	+51,298
1921							
January.....	66,596	8,788	75,384	17,170	12,277	29,447	+45,937
February.....	58,303	9,180	67,483	16,339	13,223	29,562	+37,921
March.....	63,714	10,433	74,147	15,566	10,670	26,236	+47,911
April.....	59,314	11,416	70,730	19,751	12,949	32,700	+38,030
May.....	69,764	12,884	82,648	16,337	13,692	30,029	+52,619
June.....	46,093	11,710	57,803	22,937	18,013	40,950	+16,853
Totals.....	805,228	172,935	978,163	247,718	178,313	426,031	+552,132

9—Aliens Debarred, and Aliens Deported After Entering, 1892 to 1921, by Causes

Year ended June 30—	Debarred from entering																			
	Immigration	Idiots	Imbeciles	Feeble-minded	Insane persons	Epileptics	Constitutional psychopathic inferiority	Surgeon's certificate of mental defect which may affect alien's ability to earn a living, other than idiotic, imbecile, feeble-minded, epileptic, insanity, or constitutional psychopathic inferiority	Tuberculosis (noncontagious)	Loathsome or dangerous contagious diseases	Surgeon's certificate of physical defect which may affect alien's ability to earn a living	Chronic alcoholism	Paupers or likely to become public charges.	Professional beggars	Vagrants	Coming in consequence of advertisements	Had been deported within one year	Geographically excluded classes. (Natives of that portion of Asia and islands adjacent thereto described in section 3.)	Contract laborers	Assisted aliens
1892	579,663	4			17					80			1,002						932	23
1893	439,730	3			8					81			431						518	...
1894	285,631	4			5					15			802						553	...
1895	258,536	6											1,714						694	1
1896	343,287	1			10					2			2,010						776	...
1897	230,832	1			6								1,277						328	3
1898	229,299	1			12					258			2,261						417	79
1899	311,715	1			19					348			2,599						741	82
1900	448,572	1			32					393			2,974						833	2
1901	487,918	6			16					309			2,798						275	...
1902	648,743	7			27					709			2,944						1,501	38
1903	857,046	1			23					1,773			5,312						1,164	19
1904	812,870	16			33					1,560			4,798						2,314	...
1905	1,026,499	38			92					2,198			7,898						1,434	...
1906	1,100,735	92			139					2,273			7,069						1,932	54
1907	1,285,349	29			189					3,822			6,866						1,172	34
1908	782,870	20			159					2,900			3,710						1,786	34
1909	751,786	18			141					2,382			4,402						1,336	116
1910	1,041,570	16			125					3,128			15,918						1,333	94
1911	878,587	12			169					5			12,039						1,624	129
1912	838,172	10			111					15			8,160							
1913	1,197,892	18			105					2			7,946							
		54			175					2,562										





9--ALIENS DEBARRED, AND ALIENS DEPORTED AFTER ENTERING, 1892 TO 1921, BY CAUSES--Continued

Year ended June 30—	Debarred from entering—Continued										Deported after entry								
	Stowaways	Accompanying aliens (under sec. 18)	Under 16 years of age unaccom- panied by parent	Criminals	Polygamists	Anarchists	Prostitutes and aliens coming for any immoral purpose	Supported by proceeds of prostitution	Aliens who pro- cure or attempt to bring in prostitutes and females for any immoral purpose	Unable to read (over 16 years of age)	Under passport provision, section 3	Under provi- sions Chinese exclusion law	Under provi- sions of section 23	Alien enemies	Total debarred	Under immigration law	By immi- gration officers	By United States marshals	Under Chinese- exclusion law
1892				26			80								2,164	637			
1893				12											1,053	577			
1894				8			2								1,389	417			
1895				4											2,419	177			
1896															2,799	238			82
1897				1											1,617	263			120
1898				2											3,030	199			227
1899				8											3,798	263			220
1900				4			7								4,246	356			192
1901				7			3								3,516	363			288
1902				9			3								4,974	465			444
1903				51	1		13								8,769	547			519
1904				35			9								7,994	779			704
1905				44			24								11,879	845			783
1906		180		205	3		30								12,432	676			647
1907		134		341	10		18								13,064	995			319
1908		168	88	136	6		124				60				10,902	2,069			336
1909		206	138	273	24	2	323	43			272				10,411	2,069			477
1910		315	296	580	134	5	316	181			81				12,124	2,695			665
1911		359	549	644	57		253	179			59				22,349	2,788			825
1912		326	395	592	38	2	263	141			27				16,057	3,461			522
1913		357	482	808	40	2	367	182			50				19,938	2,435			397
1914		508	718	755	31	1	380	253			48				33,041	4,610			165
1915		341	539	276	18	5	291	254			92				24,111	2,435			131
1916		478	643	245	2		439	193			88				18,867	2,590			119
1917	38	563	601	257	2	12	510	307			84				16,028	1,771			104
1918	161	133	205	160	4	3	161	371			86			6	7,297	1,551			69
1919	464	131	207	261	2	2	86	88			53			49	8,626	3,021			51
1920	1,241	186	291	355	1	2	111	40			101		3	40	11,795	2,751			35
1921	2,291	158	200	178	16	1	181	61			56		23	1	13,779	4,517			22
1922											88		94	5					2

10—Summary of Chinese Seeking Admission to the United States, Fiscal Years Ended June 30,  
1907-1921, by Classes

(From Reports of Commissioner-General of Immigration)

Class Alleged	1907		1908		1909		1910		1911		1912		1913		1914	
	Ad- mitted	De- barred	Ad- mitted	De- barred	Ad- mitted	De- barred	Ad- mitted	De- barred	Ad- mitted	De- barred	Ad- mitted	De- barred	Ad- mitted	De- barred	Ad- mitted	De- barred
United States citizens.....	929	77	1,609	127	2,530	254	2,109	490	1,639	284	1,756	170	2,171	121	2,201	139
Wives of United States citizens.....	23	8	37	2	98	2	110	14	80	5	88	5	126	9	122	2
Returning laborers.....	765	19	883	36	950	3	1,037	12	1,113	19	1,103	1	1,036	5	1,000	7
Returning merchants.....	733	52	773	55	947	20	869	31	1,092	33	1,093	18	986	13	1,881	20
Other merchants.....	112	15	216	11	292	19	228	29	199	28	170	8	105	16	180	7
Members of merchants families.....	516	77	806	128	1,242	237	1,029	332	559	259	558	133	738	92	807	130
Students.....	122	6	157	3	161	6	268	31	213	25	413	20	370	11	338	5
Travelers.....	10	1	13	.....	27	.....	83	3	52	.....	80	7	19	.....	29	3
Teachers.....	6	.....	23	.....	24	1	24	1	32	.....	33	1	33	1	17	.....
Officials.....	22	.....	83	.....	82	.....	145	.....	87	.....	47	1	38	.....	110	.....
Miscellaneous.....	17	4	24	2	52	23	48	26	41	39	33	36	40	116	88	97
Total.....	3,255	259	4,624	364	6,395	564	5,950	969	5,107	692	5,374	400	5,662	384	5,773	410



# 11—Nativity and Country of Birth of Farmers in the United States by Geographical Divisions and by Tenure

(Compiled from Abstract of the Thirteenth Census of the United States, 1910)

Division.	Per cent of all farm operators.			Per cent of farm owners.			Per cent of farm tenants.		
	Native whites.	Foreign-born whites.	Negroes and other non-whites.	Native whites.	Foreign-born whites.	Negroes and other non-whites.	Native whites.	Foreign-born whites.	Negroes and other non-whites.
United States.....	75.0	10.5	14.5	80.1	13.8	6.1	66.2	5.0	28.8
New England.....	85.3	14.5	0.2	85.6	14.2	0.2	82.6	17.1	0.3
Middle Atlantic.....	89.5	10.1	0.4	89.1	10.5	0.4	91.1	8.4	0.5
East North Central.....	82.7	16.7	0.5	79.9	19.7	0.5	90.3	9.1	0.6
West North Central.....	74.8	24.3	0.9	70.4	28.6	1.0	84.4	14.9	0.7
South Atlantic.....	67.4	0.6	32.0	81.8	1.0	17.2	50.2	0.2	49.6
East South Central.....	68.3	0.5	31.2	87.7	0.8	11.5	49.5	0.2	50.4
West South Central.....	73.4	4.4	22.2	81.0	5.9	13.1	66.6	3.1	30.4
Mountain.....	78.5	17.1	4.4	78.0	17.2	4.8	81.7	16.7	1.7
Pacific.....	69.8	27.7	2.5	69.9	28.7	1.4	67.9	24.1	8.0

## 11—Continued

Division.	Per cent. of native white farm operators.			Per cent. of foreign-born white farm operators.			Per cent. of negro and other non-white farm operators.		
	Owners.	Tenants.	Managers.	Owners.	Tenants.	Managers.	Owners.	Tenants.	Managers.
United States.....	66.3	32.7	1.0	81.4	17.6	1.0	26.2	73.6	0.2
New England.....	89.6	7.7	2.7	87.2	9.3	3.5	79.2	15.2	5.6
Middle Atlantic.....	75.4	22.7	1.9	79.0	18.6	2.4	72.1	24.2	3.7
East North Central.....	69.5	29.5	1.0	84.6	14.7	0.7	68.4	30.3	1.3
West North Central.....	64.3	34.8	0.9	80.7	18.9	0.4	74.7	24.5	0.8
South Atlantic.....	64.8	34.2	1.0	84.9	11.7	3.4	28.7	71.1	0.2
East South Central.....	62.9	36.7	0.4	81.1	17.8	1.2	18.1	81.9	0.1
West South Central.....	51.6	47.8	0.6	62.7	36.8	0.5	27.6	72.3	0.1
Mountain.....	87.1	11.2	1.7	88.3	10.4	1.3	95.6	4.1	0.3
Pacific.....	80.1	16.8	3.1	83.1	15.0	1.9	43.8	54.5	1.7



12—*Farm Operators in the United States Classified by Color and Nativity and by Tenure, 1910 \**

	All farm operators.	Native white farm operators.	Foreign- born white farm operators.	Negro and other non- white farm operators.
Owners.....	3,948,722	3,162,584	544,917	241,221
Tenants.....	2,354,676	1,558,392	118,166	678,118
Managers.....	58,104	50,087	6,473	1,544
Total.....	6,361,502	4,771,063	669,556	920,883

\* Thirteenth Census of the United States, 1910, Abstract, p. 297.

White Farm Operators.

Division.	Born in Foreign Countries.																
	Total.	Born in United States.	Austria.					Hungary.				Great Britain and Ireland.				France.	Germany
			Total.	Total.	England.	Ireland.	Scotland.	Wales.									
United States.....	5,440,619	4,763,256	669,556	33,336	3,827	87,538	39,728	33,480	10,220	4,110	5,832	221,800					
New England.....	188,460	160,196	27,451	843	248	7,092	2,429	3,751	714	198	306	2,481					
Middle Atlantic.....	466,418	417,730	47,076	1,868	538	14,470	5,716	7,103	999	652	668	15,601					
East North Central.....	1,117,772	927,524	188,153	6,874	840	20,800	10,332	7,466	2,080	922	1,353	79,813					
West North Central.....	1,100,084	829,467	269,442	14,761	1,394	21,950	8,805	9,094	2,786	1,265	1,173	87,933					
South Atlantic.....	756,019	748,411	7,141	344	165	2,141	1,134	633	313	61	112	2,635					
East South Central.....	717,262	712,116	4,819	121	62	1,072	467	467	120	18	108	1,920					
West South Central.....	734,125	691,971	41,501	6,173	264	2,853	1,558	781	417	97	650	15,420					
Mountain.....	175,418	143,699	31,427	1,021	147	8,340	4,932	1,484	1,362	562	355	5,140					
Pacific.....	185,061	132,142	52,546	1,331	169	8,820	4,355	2,701	1,429	335	1,107	10,847					

Born in Foreign Countries—Continued.

Division.	Hol-land.	Italy.	Russia.	Poland.	Scandinavian Countries.				Switzer-land.	Other European Countries	Canada.	All Other Countries (a)	Country of birth not re-ported.
					Total.	D-nmark.	Norway.	Sweden.					
United States.....	13,790	10,614	25,788	7,228	155,570	28,375	59,742	67,453	14,333	17,689	61,878	10,333	7,807
New England.....	1,775	652	1,169	372	2,278	390	141	1,747	207	948	10,611	169	813
Middle Atlantic.....	1,143	2,370	1,919	411	2,908	553	109	2,246	895	379	3,807	99	1,612
East North Central.....	6,710	654	1,941	3,466	32,560	5,739	13,330	13,491	4,062	4,527	24,262	291	2,095
West North Central.....	4,827	404	16,245	2,179	95,475	14,846	41,015	39,614	3,863	5,331	13,356	549	1,175
South Atlantic.....	52	214	143	69	407	124	93	190	247	75	443	94	467
East South Central.....	26	392	44	27	382	73	64	245	391	84	148	42	327
West South Central.....	139	2,089	1,686	562	2,276	491	404	1,381	712	842	847	6,988	653
Mountain.....	393	1,067	1,058	47	8,407	3,097	1,683	3,627	1,023	593	3,038	791	292
Pacific.....	425	2,772	1,583	95	10,877	3,082	2,903	4,912	2,933	4,910	5,366	1,310	373

(a) Includes those born at sea.

### 13—Number and Per Cent. of Foreign-born Population, According to Geographical Origin and Country of Birth

(From Abstract of the Thirteenth Census of the United States, 1910)

COUNTRY OF BIRTH.	1910		1900		INCREASE: <sup>1</sup> 1900-1910	
	Number.	Per cent of total.	Number.	Per cent of total.	Number.	Per cent.
Total foreign born . . . .	13,515,886	100.0	10,341,276	100.0	3,174,610	30.7
Europe . . . . .	11,791,841	87.2	8,871,780	85.8	2,920,061	32.9
<i>Northwestern Europe.</i> . . . .	6,740,400	49.9	7,016,311	67.8	-275,911	-3.9
Great Britain . . . . .	1,221,283	9.0	1,167,623	11.3	53,660	4.6
England . . . . .	877,719	6.5	840,513	8.1	37,206	4.4
Scotland . . . . .	261,076	1.9	233,524	2.3	27,552	11.8
Wales . . . . .	82,488	0.6	93,586	0.9	-11,098	-11.9
Ireland . . . . .	1,352,251	10.0	1,615,459	15.6	-263,208	-16.3
Germany . . . . .	2,501,333	18.5	2,813,628	27.2	-312,295	-11.1
Scandinavian countries . . . .	1,250,733	9.3	1,072,092	10.4	178,641	16.7
Norway . . . . .	403,877	3.0	336,388	3.3	67,489	20.1
Sweden . . . . .	665,207	4.9	582,014	5.6	83,193	14.3
Denmark . . . . .	181,649	1.3	153,690	1.5	27,959	18.2
Netherlands (Holland) . . . .						
Belgium and Lux- emburg . . . . .	172,534	1.3	127,719	1.2	44,815	35.1
Netherlands . . . . .	120,063	0.9	94,931	0.9	25,132	26.5
Belgium . . . . .	49,400	0.4	29,757	0.3	19,643	66.0
Luxemburg . . . . .	3,071	(2)	3,031	(2)	40	1.3
France . . . . .	117,418	0.9	104,197	1.0	13,221	12.7
Switzerland . . . . .	124,848	0.9	115,593	1.1	9,255	8.0
<i>Southern and East-     ern Europe.</i> . . . .	5,048,583	37.4	1,832,894	17.7	3,215,689	175.4
Portugal . . . . .	59,360	0.4	30,608	0.3	28,752	93.9
Spain . . . . .	22,108	0.2	7,050	0.1	15,058	213.6
Italy . . . . .	1,343,125	9.9	484,027	4.7	859,098	177.5
Russia and Finland . . . . .	1,732,462	12.8	640,743	6.2	1,091,719	170.4
Russia . . . . .	1,602,782	11.9	578,102	5.6	1,024,680	177.2
Finland . . . . .	129,680	1.0	62,641	0.6	67,039	107.0
Austria-Hungary . . . . .	1,070,582	12.4	637,009	6.2	1,033,573	162.3
Austria . . . . .	1,174,973	8.7	491,295	4.8	683,678	139.2
Hungary . . . . .	495,609	3.7	145,714	1.4	349,895	240.1
Balkan peninsula . . . . .	220,946	1.6				
Roumania . . . . .	65,923	0.5	15,032	0.1	50,891	338.6
Bulgaria . . . . .	11,498	0.1	(3)			
Servia . . . . .	4,639	(2)	(3)			
Montenegro . . . . .	5,374	(2)	(3)			
Greece . . . . .	101,282	0.7	8,515	0.1	92,767	1,089.5
Turkey in Europe . . . . .	32,230	0.2	49,910	0.1		
Country not specified . . . . .	2,858	(2)	522,575	0.2		



NOTE.—Figures denoting immigration for the years 1832, 1843, 1850 and 1857 represent respectively 15 month, 9 month, 15 month, and 6 month periods, while 12 month periods for those years have been approximated.

CHART II  
IMMIGRATION INTO THE UNITED STATES FROM THE DIFFERENT COUNTRIES  
AND TOTAL FROM ALL COUNTRIES DURING THE PAST 102 YEARS

Prepared by  
BUREAU OF IMMIGRATION  
W. W. Husband  
Commissioner General

	Nether-lands	France	Switzer-land	Denmark, Norway and Sweden (Scan-dinavia)	Italy	Germany	Austria-Hungary	United Kingdom (Great Britain and Ireland)	Russia	China	Japan	Bel-gium	Portu-gal	Greece	Turkey	Rou-mania	West Indies	Mexico	British North America	Countries Not Specified	Total Immigration from All Countries	
1921	6,493	9,552	7,106	22,854	222,260	6,803	12,649	79,577	6,398		7,878	6,166	19,195	28,502	6,391	25,817	13,771	30,758	72,317	216,729	805,228	1921
1920	5,187	8,945	3,785	13,444	95,145	1,001	352	48,062	995		9,432	6,574	15,472	11,981	6,966	1,890	13,808	52,361	90,025	44,576	439,001	1920
1919	1,098	3,379	381	5,590	1,884	52	53	7,271	1,403		10,064	268	1,222	386	29	19	8,826	29,818	57,782	11,097	141,132	1919
1918	944	1,798	331	6,506	5,250	447	61	2,847	4,242		10,213	73	2,224	1,910	58	59	8,879	18,524	32,452	13,800	110,618	1918
1917	2,235	3,187	911	13,771	34,596	1,857	1,258	16,141	12,716		8,991	398	9,975	23,974	545	66	15,507	17,869	105,399	26,007	295,403	1917
1916	2,910	4,156	663	14,761	33,665	2,877	5,191	24,702	7,842		8,680	986	12,259	27,034	1,983	90	12,027	18,425	101,551	19,021	298,826	1916
1915	3,144	4,811	1,742	17,883	49,688	7,799	18,511	41,422	26,187		8,613	2,399	4,907	12,592	4,551	481	11,598	12,340	82,215	15,817	329,700	1915
1914	6,321	9,296	4,211	29,391	283,738	35,734	278,152	73,417	255,660		8,929	5,763	10,898	35,832	29,915	4,032	14,451	14,614	86,139	31,987	1,218,480	1914
1913	6,902	9,675	4,104	32,267	265,512	34,329	251,825	88,204	291,040		8,281	7,405	14,171	22,817	38,083	2,155	12,458	11,926	73,802	19,996	1,197,892	1913
1912	6,667	8,628	3,505	27,554	157,134	27,788	178,882	82,979	162,395		6,136	4,169	10,230	21,449	27,269	1,997	12,467	23,238	55,990	19,995	838,172	1912
1911	8,358	8,022	3,458	42,285	182,882	32,061	159,057	102,496	158,721		4,520	5,711	8,374	26,226	24,667	2,522	13,403	19,889	56,839	19,105	878,587	1911
1910	7,534	7,383	3,533	48,267	215,537	31,283	258,737	98,796	186,792		2,720	5,402	8,229	25,888	33,617	2,145	11,244	18,691	56,555	19,217	1,041,570	1910
1909	4,698	6,672	2,694	32,496	183,218	25,540	170,191	71,826	120,460		3,111	3,692	4,956	14,111	16,521	1,590	11,180	16,251	51,941	10,628	751,786	1909
1908	5,946	8,788	3,281	30,175	128,503	32,309	168,509	93,380	156,711		15,803	4,162	7,307	21,489	21,043	5,228	11,888	6,067	38,540	23,771	782,870	1908
1907	6,637	9,731	3,748	49,965	285,731	37,807	338,452	113,567	258,943		30,226	6,396	9,608	36,580	28,820	4,384	16,689	1,406	19,918	26,741	1,285,449	1907
1906	4,946	9,386	3,846	52,781	273,120	37,564	265,138	102,193	215,665		13,835	5,099	8,517	19,489	15,864	4,476	13,656	1,997	5,063	48,100	1,109,735	1906
1905	4,954	10,168	4,269	60,625	221,479	40,574	275,693	137,134	184,897		10,331	5,302	5,028	10,515	10,699	4,437	16,641	2,637	2,168	18,948	1,026,499	1905
1904	4,916	9,406	5,023	60,096	193,296	46,380	177,156	87,590	145,141		14,264	3,976	6,715	11,345	9,579	7,087	10,193	1,009	2,837	16,861	812,879	1904
1903	3,998	5,578	3,983	77,647	230,622	40,086	206,011	68,947	136,093		19,968	3,450	9,317	14,090	8,647	9,310	8,170	528	1,058	9,543	857,046	1903
1902	2,284	3,117	2,344	54,038	178,375	28,304	171,989	46,036	107,347		14,270	2,577	5,307	8,104	6,410	7,196	4,711	709	636	4,969	648,743	1902
1901	2,349	3,150	2,201	39,234	135,996	21,651	113,390	45,546	85,257		5,269	1,579	4,165	5,910	6,169	7,155	3,176	347	540	4,831	487,918	1901
1900	1,735	1,739	1,152	31,151	100,135	18,507	114,847	48,237	90,787		12,635	1,196	4,234	3,771	4,247	6,459	4,656	237	396	2,451	448,572	1900
1899	1,029	1,694	1,326	22,192	77,419	17,476	62,491	45,123	60,982		2,844	1,101	2,054	2,333	4,516	1,606	2,585	161	1,322	3,461	311,715	1899
1898	767	1,990	1,246	19,282	58,613	17,111	39,797	38,021	29,828		2,230	695	1,717	2,339	4,451	900	2,124	107	350	7,731	229,299	1898
1897	890	2,107	1,566	21,089	59,431	22,533	33,031	41,148	25,816		1,526	760	1,874	571	4,884	791	4,101	91	290	8,333	230,832	1897
1896	1,583	2,463	2,304	33,199	68,060	31,885	65,103	64,818	51,445		1,110	1,261	2,766	2,175	4,308	785	6,828	150	273	2,751	343,297	1896
1895	1,388	2,628	2,239	26,851	35,427	32,173	33,401	75,137	35,907		1,150	1,058	1,452	597	3,012	523	3,096	116	239	2,142	258,536	1895
1894	1,820	3,080	2,905	32,400	42,977	53,989	38,638	52,751	39,278		1,931	1,709	2,196	1,356	1,517	729	3,177	109	194	4,875	285,631	1894
1893	6,199	3,621	4,744	58,945	72,145	78,756	57,420	78,767	42,310											35,443	439,739	1893
1892	6,141	4,678	6,886	66,295	61,631	119,168	76,937	93,598	81,511											62,818	579,663	1892
1891	5,206	6,770	6,811	60,107	76,055	113,554	71,042	122,287	47,426											51,061	560,319	1891
1890	4,326	6,585	6,993	50,368	52,003	92,427	56,199	122,735	35,598											28,068	455,302	1890
1889	6,460	5,918	7,070	57,504	25,307	99,538	34,174	153,537	33,916											21,008	444,427	1889
1888	5,845	6,454	7,737	81,924	51,558	109,717	45,814	182,198	33,487											22,155	546,889	1888
1887	4,506	5,034	5,214	67,629	47,622	106,865	40,265	161,744	30,766											20,464	490,109	1887
1886	2,314	3,318	4,805	46,735	21,315	84,403	28,680	112,539	17,800											12,294	334,203	1886
1885	2,689	3,495	5,895	40,704	13,642	124,443	27,309	109,480	17,158											50,521	395,446	1885
1884	4,198	3,608	9,386	52,728	16,510	179,676	36,571	129,223	17,226	4,009										69,466	518,592	1884
1883	5,249	4,821	12,751	71,994	31,792	194,786	27,625	158,082	11,920	8,031										76,271	603,322	1883
1882	9,517	6,003	10,844	105,326	32,160	250,630	29,150	179,419	21,590	39,579										104,774	788,992	1882
1881	8,597	5,227	11,293	81,582	15,401	210,485	27,935	153,714	10,655	11,890										132,652	669,431	1881
1880	3,340	4,313	6,156	65,657	12,354	84,638	17,267	144,870	7,191	5,802										105,669	457,257	1880
1879	753	4,655	3,161	21,820	5,791	34,602	5,963	49,964	4,942	9,604										36,571	177,826	1879
1878	608	4,159	1,808	12,254	4,344	29,313	5,150	38,082	3,595	8,992										30,164	178,469	1878
1877	591	5,856	1,686	11,274	3,195	29,298	5,396	38,146	7,132	10,594										28,689	141,837	1877
1876	855	8,002	1,549	12,323	3,017	31,937	6,276	48,854	5,700	22,781										28,692	169,986	1876
1875	1,237	8,321	1,814	14,322	3,631	47,769	7,658	85,846	8,981	16,437										31,482	227,498	1875
1874	2,444	9,643	3,093	19,178	7,667	87,291	8,850	115,706	5,868	13,776										39,823	313,339	1874
1873	3,811	14,789	3,107	35,481	8,757	149,671	7,112	166,826	4,972	20,291										44,986	459,803	1873
1872	1,909	9,317	3,650	28,575	4,190	141,109	4,410	153,626	2,665	7,788										47,567	404,806	1872
1871	993	3,137	2,269	22,132	2,816	82,554	4,887	142,930	1,208	7,135										51,289	321,350	1871
1870	1,066	4,007	3,075	30,742	2,893	118,225	4,425	160,701	1,130	15,740										45,199	387,208	1870
1869	1,134	3,879	3,650	43,941	1,489	131,042	1,499	125,250	527	12,874										27,483	352,768	1869
1868	718	5,119	3,405	17,145	1,549	122,677	553	115,392	376	6,707										8,548	282,189	1868
1867	2,598	5,886	4,656	10,460	1,585	124,076	392	126,289	618	3,519										23,025	303,104	1867
1866	1,613	5,724	3,751	13,152	1,318	120,218	87	133,061	999	1,872										50,782	332,577	1866
1865	572	2,949	1,738	3,356	594	58,153	518	100,108	217	3,702										8,432	180,339	1865
1864	520	2,128																				







13—NUMBER AND PER CENT. OF FOREIGN-BORN POPULATION,  
ACCORDING TO GEOGRAPHICAL ORIGIN AND COUNTRY  
OF BIRTH—*Continued*

(From Abstract of the Thirteenth Census of the United States, 1910)

COUNTRY OF BIRTH.	1910		1900		INCREASE: <sup>1</sup> 1900-1910	
	Number.	Per cent. of total.	Number.	Per cent. of total.	Number.	Per cent.
Asia.....	191,484	1.4	120,248	1.2	71,236	59.2
China.....	56,756	0.4	81,534	0.8	—24,778	—30.4
Japan.....	67,744	0.5	24,788	0.2	42,956	173.3
India.....	4,664	(2)	2,031	(2)	2,633	129.6
Turkey in Asia.....	59,729	0.4	(4)	.....	.....	.....
All other countries....	2,591	(2)	11,895	0.1	—9,304	—78.2
America <sup>6</sup> .....	1,489,231	11.0	1,317,380	12.7	171,851	13.0
Canada and Newfoundland.....	1,209,717	9.0	1,179,922	11.4	29,795	2.5
Canada—French.....	385,083	2.8	7395,126	3.8	—10,043	—2.5
Canada—Other.....	819,554	6.1	7784,796	7.6	34,758	4.4
Newfoundland.....	5,080	(2)	(7)	.....	.....	.....
West Indies <sup>8</sup> .....	47,635	0.4	25,435	0.2	22,200	87.3
Cuba.....	15,133	0.1	11,081	0.1	4,052	36.6
Other West Indies.....	32,502	0.2	14,354	0.1	18,148	126.4
Mexico.....	221,915	1.6	103,393	1.0	118,522	114.6
Central and South America.....	9,964	0.1	8,630	0.1	1,334	15.5
Central America.....	1,736	(2)	3,897	(2)	—2,161	—55.5
South America.....	8,228	0.1	4,733	(2)	3,495	73.8
All other.....	43,330	0.3	31,868	0.3	11,462	36.0
Africa.....	3,992	(2)	2,538	(2)	1,454	57.3
Australia.....	9,035	0.1	6,807	0.1	2,228	32.7
Atlantic islands.....	18,274	0.1	9,768	0.1	8,506	87.1
Pacific islands.....	2,415	(2)	2,013	(2)	402	20.0
Country not specified.....	2,687	(2)	2,546	(2)	141	5.5
Born at sea.....	6,927	0.1	8,196	0.1	—1,269	—15.5

<sup>1</sup> A minus sign (—) denotes decrease.

<sup>2</sup> Less than one-tenth of 1 per cent.

<sup>3</sup> Included under "Country not specified" in 1900.

<sup>4</sup> Figures for Turkey in Asia included with those for Turkey in Europe in 1900.

<sup>5</sup> Includes 20,324 persons reported as born in Poland, without specification as to whether German, Austrian, or Russian Poland.

<sup>6</sup> Outside of the United States.

<sup>7</sup> Newfoundland included with Canada for 1900.

<sup>8</sup> Except Porto Rico.

# 14—Foreign-born Population, by Principal Countries of Birth

1910 and 1900

(From Abstract of the 13th Census of the United States, 1910)

TOTAL FOREIGN BORN, 1910: 13,515,886



TOTAL FOREIGN BORN, 1900: 10,341,276



# 15—Foreign-born Population, by Country of Birth, 1860-1910

(From Abstract, Thirteenth Census of the United States, 1910)

COUNTRY OF BIRTH.	FOREIGN-BORN POPULATION						PER CENT OF TOTAL FOREIGN BORN.					
	1910	1900	1890	1880	1870	1860	1910	1900	1890	1880	1870	1860
	13,515,886	10,341,276	9,249,560	6,679,943	5,567,229	4,188,058	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
All foreign countries. . .	1,174,973	491,295	241,377	124,024	70,797	25,061	8.7	4.8	2.6	1.9	1.3	0.6
Austria <sup>1</sup> . . . . .	49,400	29,757	22,639	15,535	12,553	9,072	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Belgium. . . . .	385,083	395,126	302,496	717,157	493,464	249,970	{ 2.8	3.8	3.3	} 10.7	8.9	6.0
Canadian—French <sup>2</sup> . . . . .	819,554	784,796	678,442	104,468	63,042	35,565	{ 6.1	7.6	7.3		1.6	1.1
Canadian—Other <sup>2</sup> . . . . .	56,756	81,534	106,701	104,468	63,042	35,565	0.4	0.8	1.2			
China. . . . .												
Cuba and other West Indies. . . . .	347,635	25,435	23,256	16,401	11,570	7,353	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2
Denmark. . . . .	181,649	153,690	132,543	64,196	30,107	9,962	1.3	1.5	1.4	1.0	0.5	0.2
England. . . . .	877,719	840,513	909,092	664,160	555,046	433,944	6.5	8.1	9.8	9.9	10.0	10.4
France. . . . .	117,418	104,197	113,174	106,971	116,402	109,870	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.6	2.1	2.6
Germany <sup>1</sup> . . . . .	2,501,333	2,813,628	2,784,894	1,966,742	1,690,533	1,276,075	18.5	27.2	30.1	29.4	30.4	30.5
Greece. . . . .	101,282	8,515	1,887	776	390	328	0.7	0.1	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
Hungary. . . . .	495,609	145,714	62,435	11,526	3,737	1,111	3.7	1.4	0.7	0.2	0.1	0.1
Ireland. . . . .	1,352,251	1,615,459	1,871,509	1,854,571	1,855,827	1,611,304	10.0	15.6	20.2	27.8	33.3	38.5
Italy. . . . .	1,343,125	484,027	182,580	44,230	17,157	11,677	9.9	4.7	2.0	0.7	0.3	0.3
Japan. . . . .	67,744	24,788	2,292	401	73	.....	0.5	0.2	(4)	(4)	(4)	.....
Mexico. . . . .	221,915	103,393	77,853	68,399	42,435	27,466	1.6	1.0	0.8	1.0	0.8	0.7
Netherlands (Holland). . . . .	120,063	94,931	81,828	58,090	46,802	28,381	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.7
Norway. . . . .	403,877	336,388	322,665	181,729	114,246	43,995	3.0	3.3	3.5	2.7	2.1	1.1
Portugal. . . . .	59,360	30,608	15,996	8,138	4,542	4,116	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1
Russia <sup>1</sup> and Finland. . . . .	1,732,462	640,743	182,644	35,722	4,644	3,160	12.8	6.2	2.0	0.5	0.1	0.1
Scotland. . . . .	261,076	233,524	242,231	170,136	140,835	108,518	1.9	2.3	2.6	2.5	2.5	2.6
Spain. . . . .	22,108	7,050	6,185	5,121	3,764	4,244	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Sweden. . . . .	665,207	582,014	478,041	194,337	97,332	18,625	4.9	5.6	5.2	2.9	1.7	0.4
Switzerland. . . . .	124,848	115,593	104,069	88,621	75,153	53,327	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.3
Turkey in Asia. . . . .	59,729	} 9,910	1,839	1,205	302	128	{ 0.4	} 0.1	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
Turkey in Europe. . . . .	32,230											
Wales. . . . .	82,488	93,586	100,079	83,302	74,533	45,763	0.6	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.1
All other countries <sup>1</sup> . . . . .	158,992	95,062	200,813	93,985	41,943	70,704	1.2	0.9	2.2	1.4	0.8	1.7

<sup>1</sup> For the censuses from 1860 to 1890, inclusive, persons reported as born in Poland are included under "All other countries"; for the censuses of 1910 and 1900 (so far as possible), they are distributed under Austria, Germany, and Russia, respectively.

<sup>2</sup> Includes Newfoundland prior to 1910. <sup>3</sup> Except Porto Rico.

# 16—Foreign White Stock in the United States, by Country of Origin, 1900-1910

(From Abstract, Thirteenth Census of the United States, 1910)

COUNTRY OF ORIGIN.	TOTAL FOREIGN WHITE STOCK.				FOREIGN-BORN WHITE.				NATIVE WHITE OF FOREIGN OR MIXED PARENTAGE.				One parent born in country specified, the other in the United States.				
	Number.		Per cent.		1910		1900		Total.		Both parents born in country specified.			1910		1900	
			1910	1900													
	1910	1900	1910	1900	Per cent. of increase: 1900-1910	1910	1900	1910	1900	1910	1900	1910		1900	1910	1900	1910
All foreign countries . . . . .	32,243,382	25,859,834	100.0	100.0	24.7												
Austria . . . . .	2,001,559	850,884	6.2	3.3	135.2												
Belgium . . . . .	89,264	(2)	0.3														
Bulgaria, Servia, and Montenegro . . . . .	22,685	(2)	0.1														
Canada—Frenchs . . . . .	932,238	880,335	2.9	3.2	12.3												
Canada—Others . . . . .	1,822,377	1,637,603	5.7	6.3	21.0												
Denmark . . . . .	400,064	310,127	1.2	1.2	29.3												
England . . . . .	2,322,442	2,173,741	7.2	8.4	6.8												
France . . . . .	292,389	268,292	0.9	1.0	9.0												
Germany . . . . .	8,282,618	7,961,315	25.7	30.8	4.0												
Greece . . . . .	109,665	(2)	0.3														
Hungary . . . . .	700,227	218,447	2.2	0.8	220.5												
Ireland . . . . .	4,504,360	4,826,904	14.0	18.7	-6.7												
Italy . . . . .	2,098,360	727,844	6.5	2.8	188.3												
Mexico . . . . .	382,002	(2)	1.2														
Netherlands (Holland) . . . . .	293,574	(2)	0.9														
Norway . . . . .	979,099	788,758	3.0	3.0	24.1												
Portugal . . . . .	111,122	(3)	0.3														
Roumania . . . . .	87,721	(2)	0.3														
Russia and Finland . . . . .	2,752,675	903,435	8.5	3.5	204.7												
Scotland . . . . .	659,663	594,297	2.0	2.3	11.0												
Spain . . . . .	33,134	(2)	0.1														
Sweden . . . . .	1,364,215	1,082,388	4.2	4.2	26.0												
Switzerland . . . . .	301,650	257,426	0.9	1.0	17.2												
Turkey in Asia . . . . .	78,631	(2)	0.2														
Turkey in Europe . . . . .	35,314	(2)	0.1														
Wales . . . . .	248,947	253,045	0.8	1.0	-1.6												
All other countries . . . . .	160,295	1,118,841	0.5	4.3													
Of mixed foreign parentage <sup>4</sup> . . . . .	1,177,092	1,056,152	3.7	4.1	11.5												

<sup>1</sup> A minus sign (—) denotes decrease.

<sup>2</sup> Data for 1900 not available; included with "All other countries."

<sup>3</sup> Includes Newfoundland for 1900.

<sup>4</sup> Native whites whose parents were born in different foreign countries; for example, one parent in Ireland and the other in Scotland.

**17—Statement of Total Immigration to Canada From  
January 1, 1897 to March 31, 1921**

	British	From the U. S. A.	Other Coun- tries	Totals
Calendar year 1897.....	11,383	2,412	7,921	21,716
Calendar year 1898.....	11,173	9,119	11,608	31,900
Calendar year 1899.....	10,660	11,945	21,938	44,543
Six months ended June 30, 1900.....	5,141	8,543	10,211	23,895
Fiscal year ended June 30, 1901.....	11,810	17,987	19,352	49,149
Fiscal year ended June 30, 1902.....	17,259	26,388	23,732	67,379
Fiscal year ended June 30, 1903.....	41,792	49,473	37,099	128,364
Fiscal year ended June 30, 1904.....	50,374	45,171	34,786	130,331
Fiscal year ended June 30, 1905.....	65,359	43,543	37,364	146,266
Fiscal year ended June 30, 1906.....	86,796	57,796	44,472	189,064
Nine months ended March 31, 1907.....	55,791	34,659	34,217	124,667
Fiscal year ended March 31, 1908.....	120,182	58,312	83,975	262,469
Fiscal year ended March 31, 1909.....	52,901	59,832	34,175	146,908
Fiscal year ended March 31, 1910.....	59,790	103,798	45,206	208,794
Fiscal year ended March 31, 1911.....	123,013	121,451	66,620	311,084
Fiscal year ended March 31, 1912.....	138,121	133,710	82,406	354,237
Fiscal year ended March 31, 1913.....	150,542	139,009	112,881	402,432
Fiscal year ended March 31, 1914.....	142,622	107,530	134,726	384,878
Fiscal year ended March 31, 1915.....	43,276	59,779	41,734	144,789
Fiscal year ended March 31, 1916.....	8,664	36,937	2,936	48,537
Fiscal year ended March 31, 1917.....	8,282	61,389	5,703	75,374
Fiscal year ended March 31, 1918.....	3,178	71,314	4,582	79,074
Fiscal year ended March 31, 1919.....	9,914	40,715	7,073	57,702
Fiscal year ended March 31, 1920.....	59,603	49,656	8,077	117,336
Fiscal year ended March 31, 1921.....	74,262	48,059	26,156	148,477

During the above period 18 per cent. British, 26 per cent. American and 29 per cent. of immigrants from other countries made entry for homesteads in western Canada. These figures do not account for the large number of farmers and farm laborers of the immigrant class who settled in all parts of the Dominion without homesteading.

**17a—STATEMENT OF TOTAL BRITISH IMMIGRATION TO CAN-  
ADA FROM JULY 1, 1900, TO MARCH 31, 1921—Continued**

	English	Welsh	Scotch	Irish	Totals
Fiscal year ended June 30, 1901.....	9,331	70	1,476	933	11,810
Fiscal year ended June 30, 1902.....	12,783	312	2,853	1,311	17,259
Fiscal year ended June 30, 1903.....	32,087	423	7,046	2,236	41,792
Fiscal year ended June 30, 1904.....	36,003	691	10,552	3,128	50,374
Fiscal year ended June 30, 1905.....	48,847	770	11,744	3,998	65,359
Fiscal year ended June 30, 1906.....	65,135	797	15,846	5,018	86,796
Nine months ended March 31, 1907.....	41,156	502	10,729	3,404	55,791
Fiscal year ended March 31, 1908.....	90,380	1,032	22,223	6,547	120,182
Fiscal year ended March 31, 1909.....	37,019	463	11,810	3,609	52,901
Fiscal year ended March 31, 1910.....	40,416	728	14,706	3,940	59,790
Fiscal year ended March 31, 1911.....	84,707	1,505	29,924	6,877	123,013
Fiscal year ended March 31, 1912.....	95,107	1,699	32,988	8,327	138,121
Fiscal year ended March 31, 1913.....	108,082	2,019	30,735	9,706	150,542
Fiscal year ended March 31, 1914.....	102,122	1,787	29,128	9,585	142,622
Fiscal year ended March 31, 1915.....	30,807	598	8,346	3,525	43,276
Fiscal year ended March 31, 1916.....	5,857	102	1,887	818	8,664
Fiscal year ended March 31, 1917.....	5,174	88	2,062	958	8,282
Fiscal year ended March 31, 1918.....	2,477	54	473	174	3,178
Fiscal year ended March 31, 1919.....	7,954	106	1,518	336	9,914
Fiscal year ended March 31, 1920.....	45,173	682	10,997	2,751	59,603
Fiscal year ended March 31, 1921.....	47,687	943	19,248	6,384	74,262
Totals.....	948,304	15,371	276,291	83,565	1,323,531

During the above period 18 per cent. of English, 18 per cent. of Welsh, 16 per cent. of Scotch and 21 per cent. of Irish immigrants made entry for homesteads in western Canada. In addition, a large number of farmers and farm laborers of the immigrant class of the nationalities mentioned settled in all parts of the Dominion without homesteading.



18—Statement of the Total Immigration to Canada, by Nationalities,  
From July 1, 1900, to March 31, 1920

FISCAL YEAR										
	1900-1901	1901-1902	1902-1903	1903-1904	1904-1905	1905-1906	Nine months ended Mar. 31, 1907	1907-1908	1908-1909	1909-1910
British—										
English.....	9,331	12,783	32,087	36,003	48,847	65,135	41,156	90,380	37,019	40,416
Irish.....	933	1,311	2,236	3,128	3,998	5,018	3,404	6,547	3,609	3,940
Scotch.....	1,476	2,853	7,046	10,552	11,744	15,846	10,729	22,223	11,810	14,706
Welsh.....	70	312	423	691	770	797	502	1,032	463	728
Total British.....	11,810	17,259	41,792	50,374	65,359	86,796	55,791	120,182	52,901	59,790
African, South.....				21	35	46	23	76	53	97
Albanian.....										
Argentinian.....										
Australian.....	3	11	46	58	204	322	185	180	171	203
Austro-Hungarian.....	5,692	8,557	13,095	11,137	10,089	10,170	4,045	21,376	10,798	9,757
Belgian.....	132	223	303	858	796	1,106	650	1,214	828	910
Brazilian.....				2	1	2	5	1	4	
Bulgarian.....		1	7	14	2	71	179	2,529	56	557
Chinese.....	7	2				18	92	1,884	1,887	2,153
Cuban.....										
Dutch.....	25	35	223	169	281	389	394	1,212	495	741
French.....	360	431	937	1,534	1,743	1,648	1,314	2,671	1,830	1,727
German.....	984	1,048	1,887	2,985	2,759	1,796	1,903	2,377	1,340	1,533
Greek.....	81	161	193	191	98	254	545	1,053	192	452
Hawaiian.....										
Hebrew.....	2,765	1,015	2,066	3,727	7,715	7,127	6,684	7,712	1,636	3,182
Hindoo.....					45	387	2,124	2,623	6	10
Italian.....	4,710	3,828	3,371	4,445	3,473	7,959	5,114	11,212	4,228	7,118
Japanese.....					354	1,922	2,042	7,601	495	271
Macedonian.....	6									



18—STATEMENT OF THE TOTAL IMMIGRATION TO CANADA, BY NATIONALITIES, FROM  
JULY 1, 1900, TO MARCH 31, 1920—Continued

	FISCAL YEAR										Totals
	1910-1911	1911-1912	1912-1913	1913-1914	1914-1915	1915-1916	1916-1917	1917-1918	1918-1919	1919-1920	
British—											
English.....	84,707	95,107	108,082	102,122	30,807	5,857	5,174	2,477	7,954	45,173	900,617
Irish.....	6,877	8,327	9,706	6,585	3,525	818	958	174	336	2,751	77,181
Scotch.....	29,924	32,988	30,735	29,128	8,346	1,887	2,062	473	1,518	10,997	257,043
Welsh.....	1,505	1,699	2,019	1,787	598	102	88	54	106	682	14,428
Total British.....	123,013	138,121	150,542	142,622	43,276	8,664	8,282	3,178	9,914	59,603	1,249,269
African, South.....	86	144	22	56	23	11	1	4	.....	23	721
Albanian.....	.....	.....	.....	3	4	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	7
Argentinian.....	.....	.....	.....	2	5	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	9
Australian.....	266	184	106	106	51	32	18	34	35	88	2,303
Austro-Hungarian.....	16,285	21,651	21,875	28,323	7,150	15	1	.....	2	8	200,026
Belgian.....	1,563	1,601	1,826	2,651	1,149	172	126	19	48	1,532	17,707
Brazilian.....	13	.....	.....	5	.....	2	.....	.....	.....	.....	35
Bulgarian.....	1,068	3,295	4,616	1,727	4,048	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	1
Chinese.....	5,278	6,247	7,445	5,512	1,258	88	393	769	4,333	544	18,173
Cuban.....	.....	.....	.....	10	1	1	3	1	.....	.....	37,913
Dutch.....	931	1,077	1,524	1,506	605	186	151	94	59	154	18
French.....	2,041	2,094	2,755	2,683	1,206	180	199	114	222	1,584	10,251
German.....	2,533	4,664	4,953	5,537	2,472	27	9	.....	.....	.....	27,273
Greek.....	777	693	1,390	1,102	1,147	145	258	45	1	12	38,821
Hawaiian.....	.....	.....	.....	2	18	1	.....	.....	4	39	8,820
Hebrew.....	5,146	5,322	7,387	11,252	3,107	65	136	32	22	116	21
Hindoo.....	5	3	5	88	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	76,114
Italian.....	8,359	7,590	16,601	24,722	6,228	388	758	189	49	1,165	5,297
Japanese.....	437	765	724	856	592	401	648	883	1,178	711	121,507
Macedonian.....	.....	.....	.....	17	132	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	19,886
Malay.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	149
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	5

18—STATEMENT OF THE TOTAL IMMIGRATION TO CANADA, BY NATIONALITIES, FROM  
JULY 1, 1900, TO MARCH 31, 1920—Continued

Maltese.....	.....	128	402	19	4	109	144	2	405	1,215
Mexican.....	.....	9	9	.....	.....	.....	1	3	.....	25
Montenegrin.....	.....	36	13	9	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	59
Negro.....	12	211	266	202	34	98	35	22	61	1,450
Newfoundland.....	2,229	1,036	496	338	255	1,243	1,199	512	443	21,616
New Zealand.....	116	39	24	21	18	12	13	15	31	768
Persian.....	19	20	19	7	3	.....	2	2	.....	196
Polish.....	2,177	5,060	9,793	1,976	8	12	.....	4	76	36,265
Portuguese.....	13	9	58	8	.....	1	1	.....	3	114
Romanian.....	511	793	1,504	361	4	4	.....	.....	21	8,691
Russian—	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Russian, N.E.S.....	6,621	18,623	24,485	5,201	40	25	42	42	51	97,264
Dukhobor.....	41	108	4	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	417
Finnish.....	2,132	2,391	3,183	459	139	249	113	2	44	21,724
Mennonite.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	101
Scandinavian—	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Danish.....	535	628	798	326	167	145	74	44	233	6,779
Icelandic.....	250	205	231	145	15	9	3	12	11	4,512
Norwegian.....	2,169	1,692	1,647	788	232	303	235	91	179	20,797
Swedish.....	3,213	2,394	2,435	916	177	332	156	101	241	28,578
Serbian.....	50	209	193	220	6	1	.....	1	12	1,278
Spanish.....	197	191	296	755	11	76	28	12	15	2,932
Swiss.....	270	230	246	209	42	30	12	11	100	2,636
Turkish—	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Turkish, N.E.S.....	469	632	770	33	.....	5	.....	.....	1	4,084
Arabian.....	3	2	10	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	469
Armenian.....	20	60	100	36	.....	3	2	.....	10	1,823
Egyptian.....	3	.....	5	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	65
Syrian.....	124	144	232	79	3	9	2	.....	18	5,994
U. S. A. Citizens, via ocean ports.....	203	143	121	41	15	20	28	21	55	1,701
West Indian.....	455	393	495	389	47	315	307	223	6620	4,488
Other nationalities.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	20
Total Continental, etc.....	66,620	82,406	134,726	41,734	2,936	5,703	4,582	7,073	8,077	861,116
From the U. S. A.....	121,451	133,710	107,530	59,779	36,937	61,389	71,314	40,715	49,656	1,318,449
Total immigration.....	311,084	354,237	384,878	144,789	48,537	75,374	79,074	57,702	117,336	3,428,834

N.E.S.—Not Elsewhere Specified.





BIBLIOGRAPHY  
AND  
INDEX



## BIBLIOGRAPHY

### SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY ON IMMIGRATION

A short selected, but not by any means exhaustive, list of some of the more important books on immigration. Many of the following books contain exhaustive bibliographies, covering both books, periodicals and Government publications. Fairchild's book on Immigration has a particularly good bibliography.

#### *Section I—General*

- Addams, Jane*—Twenty Years at Hull House. Macmillan Company, 1910.—A personal biography of a settlement in an immigrant section of Chicago, which portrays in Jane Addams' wonderful manner, the life of the immigrants and their contact with Hull House and City Institutions during a period of twenty years.
- Clark, Francis E.*—Old Homes of New Americans. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1913.—Gives an interesting account of the conditions and the countries from which the supply of our immigration comes.
- Commons, M. R.*—Races and Immigrants in America. Macmillan Company, 1908. A small, compact book dealing historically with the racial elements making up the American population, together with suggestive chapters on industry, labor, city life, crime and poverty, politics, amalgamation, assimilation.
- Fairchild Henry Pratt*—Immigration. Macmillan Company, 1914.—A scholarly, scientific, thoroughgoing treatment of the immigration problem. Book is well arranged, deals with principles, and gives one an excellent grasp of the laws underlying population movements. One of the best general books on immigration.
- Hall, Prescott F.*—Immigration. Henry Holt and Company, 1906. A study of present-day immigration which pays special attention to the effects of immigration upon America's social, economic and political life, and which

leans strongly toward restriction as the solution of the immigration problem.

*Hourwich, Isaac A.*—Immigration and Labor. G. P. Putnam Sons, 1912. Deals with immigration as an economic question. The book is taken up quite largely with statistical arguments and is decidedly against any restrictive measures.

*Keller, Frances A.*—Straight America. Macmillan Company, 1916. A powerful plea for a national policy of Americanization including such problems as distribution, education, and assimilation, in order to develop a national unity. Americanization is the keynote.

*Roberts, Peter*—The New Immigration. Macmillan Company, 1912. A distinctive study of the industrial and social life of southeastern Europeans in America.

*Ross, Edward A.*—The Old World in the New. Century Company, 1914. Deals with the racial elements making up the population of the United States, especially contrasting the older immigration from northern and western Europe with the later day immigration from southern and eastern Europe. Sounds a strong note of warning in regard to the evil social, economic and political effects arising from the character of later-day immigration.

*Steiner, Edward A.*—Immigrant Tide. Fleming H. Revell Company, 1909. On the Trail of the Immigrant. Fleming H. Revell Company, 1906. Written from a wealth of personal experience, these books vividly portray the feelings, the aspirations, and the life of the immigrant. Show the influence of the returned immigrant upon his peasant home and his social and national life. Interprets the relation of various races to our institutions, their attitude toward them and the influence of these institutions upon the immigrant.

*Warne, Frank J.*—The Tide of Immigration. D. Appleton and Company, 1916. A well-balanced, up-to-date and interesting discussion of immigration. The author believes that our immigration policy should rest on economic assimilation and is of the opinion that immigration should be restricted.

The Carnegie Corporation of New York has provided funds for a thorough study of Americanization. Allen T. Burns is the director of these studies in methods of Americanization. Several volumes have already been published. Others are in preparation. They form a most valuable, up-to-date, authoritative addition to existing immigration literature. The entire list of studies is as follows:

Schooling of the Immigrant—Frank V. Thompson, Supt. of Public Schools, Boston.

America via the Neighborhood—John Daniels.

Old World Traits Transplanted—Robert E. Park, Professorial Lecturer, University of Chicago; Herbert A. Miller, Professor of Sociology, Oberlin College.

A Stake in the Land—Peter A. Speck, in charge, Slavic Section, Library of Congress.

Immigrant Health and the Community—Michael M. Davis, Jr., Director, Boston Dispensary.

New Homes for Old—Sophonisba P. Breckinridge, Professor of Social Economy, University of Chicago.

\*Adjusting Immigrant and Industry—William M. Leiserson, Chairman, Labor Adjustment Boards, Rochester and New York.

\*The Immigrant Press and Its Control—Robert E. Park, Professorial Lecturer, University of Chicago.

\*The Immigrant's Day in Court—Kata Holladay Claghorn, Instructor in Social Research, New York School of Social Work.

Americans by Choice—John P. Gavit, Vice-President, New York *Evening Post*.

\*Summary—Allen T. Burns, Director, Studies in Methods of Americanization.

\* In preparation.



*Section II—The Problem of Asiatic Immigration*

- Gulick, Sidney L.*—The American Japanese Problem. Scribner's, 1914. A sympathetic study of the Japanese-American problem by a man who is intensely desirous of developing a system of regulation and understanding which will be acceptable to both Japan and America. A very important book on the subject of Asiatic Immigration. Outlines a new American Oriental policy.
- Kawakami, K. K.*—Asia at the Door. Fleming H. Revell Company, 1914. Problem of the Asiatic presented by a foremost Japanese from the Japanese viewpoint.
- Millis, H. A.*—The Japanese Problem in the United States. Macmillan Company, 1915. A thoroughgoing, scientific and valuable study of the Japanese immigration problem. Deals with the admission of the Japanese, the treatment of those already here, and goes carefully into the question of alien land legislation such as that passed by California.
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Publications of the United States Bureau of Education and the United States Bureau of Naturalization.

The Cleveland Foundation has recently published an excellent report by Herbert A. Miller on the School and the Immigrant, based on a survey of Cleveland, Ohio.

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